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ABSTRACT

Thirteen author-contributed papers, interviews, and discussions focus on historical trends in the education of handicapped children and youth. The first section provides three perspectives on the status of exceptional child education through interviews with members of Congress (J. Randolph, H. Williams, C. Perkins, And A. Quie), the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (E. Martin, and J. Harvey), and The Council for Exceptional Children (W. Geer and P. Jones). The second section presents the following eight papers: "Especially for Special Educators: A Sense of Our Own History (B. Aiello); "The Early Years: Prologue to Tomorrow" (W. Abraham); "Great Moments in the History of The Council for Exceptional Children" (F. Lord); "Parent Groups: Their Role in a Better Life for the Handicapped" (L. Cain); "Special Education Research: Retrospect and Prospect (H. Prehm); "The Past is Prologue: Teacher Preparation in Special Education" (F. Connor); "Law, Litigation, and Handicapped Children" (J. Melcher); and "Who Are All the Children?" (W. Lance). A current awareness paper prepared by The Council for Exceptional Children for the White House Conference on Handicapped Individuals completes the text. (CL)

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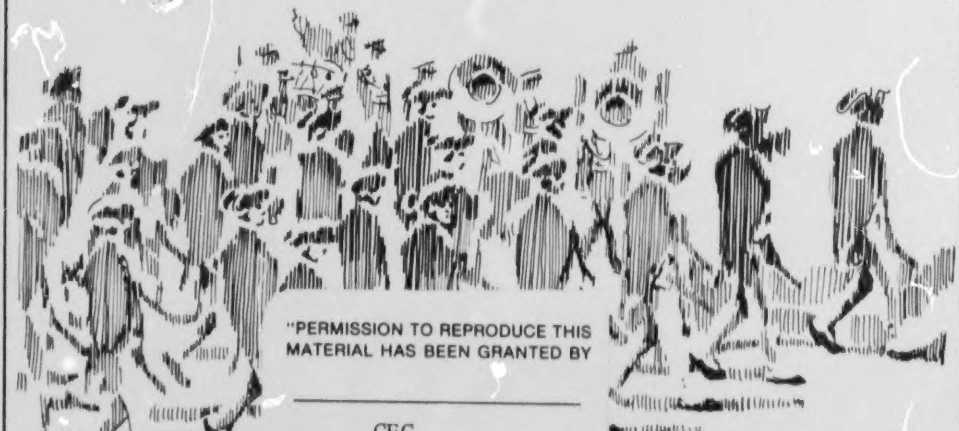

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Preface

Throughout this special Bicentennial publication, The Council for Exceptional Children invites the reader to share in an historic unfolding of educational services for handicapped children and youth. *Exceptional Child Education at the Bicentennial* contains three main sections. The first section sets an optimistic tone and moves the "parade of progress" forward. In interviews, four Congressmen and leaders from the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped and CEC look at future directions from their respective perspectives.

The second section, "Milestones along the Way," provides a capsule history of special education. The individual pieces were published originally in *Exceptional Children* as a series of articles commemorating the Bicentennial.

In May 1977 delegates from all over the nation will convene the first White House Conference on Handicapped Individuals. The mission of the Conference is to:

1. Stimulate a national assessment of problems faced by individuals with physical or mental handicaps.
2. Generate a national awareness of those problems.
3. Develop recommendations for legislative and administrative actions to allow individuals with handicaps to live their lives independently, with dignity, and with integration into community life.

The Council for Exceptional Children was commissioned to prepare an Awareness Paper in the area of education concerns. This paper, "Full Educational Opportunities for Handicapped Individuals," will be used as a resource document at the national conference as well as at the state conferences preceding the national meeting. The paper is included here as section three.

Many people contributed to the content of this book. Thirty special educators, some of whom have worked in the field for over 50 years, participated in a telephone interview, thus providing the basis for the Bicentennial series of articles. The White House Conference paper is the result of the efforts of a number of outstanding individuals who provided ideas, prepared copy, and reviewed the manuscript. These people are listed on page 83.

The contributions of all are gratefully acknowledged and appreciated.

AMERICAN REVOLUTION BICENTENNIAL
1776-1976

THREE DIMENSIONS OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILD EDUCATION AT THE BICENTENNIAL

Jean N. Nazzaro
Barbara Aiello

For this special Bicentennial publication the developments in educational services for the handicapped and gifted have been cast as a parade of progress. Imagine, if you will, the parade route with various reviewing stands set up along the way. One stand is occupied by some of our members of Congress who have been actively involved in implementing legislation for exceptional children. On the next platform we see several staff members from the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, US Office of Education, and finally a little further along the route is the stand for The Council for Exceptional Children.

CEC roving reporters made stops at each of these reviewing stands and asked the spectators about what they saw happening. Generally, the questions followed a pattern where folks were asked to fill us in on the portions of the parade that had already passed. Some of the viewers had been watching the progress of services for the handicapped from the time when the parade was no more than small bands of enthusiasts intermittently appearing along the route.

We asked what they saw happening right now and what they thought was still around the corner. Each group provides a somewhat different dimension on Exceptional Child Education at the Bicentennial.

I do have a very deep conviction, a very real hope, that handicapped children have come to be considered a part of the regular educational setting.—Senator Jennings Randolph

Our first stop is at the reviewing stand set up for members of Congress. Here our reporter was able to speak with US Senator Jennings Randolph, Democrat from West Virginia and Chairman of the Subcommittee on the Handicapped.

Sen. Randolph: The major legislative landmark which laid the cornerstone for our government's role in education and training for the handicapped took place in 1966. It came about with the passage of Public Law 89-750. That measure contained important provisions that mandated the establishment of an administrative unit in the United States Office of Education that was to coordinate all programs and activities and be the agency that would carry out supportive services for the handicapped and projects and programs for the education and training of the handicapped. Previously, our federal effort was fragmented and scattered; there were numerous bureaus and agencies administering educational programs for handicapped children, and overlapping and duplication took place. We lacked a realistic national policy. Since the passage of the original law, it has been amended and expanded and has increased the assistance to handicapped children.

Additional events over the last few years have been the enactment of Public Laws 93-380 and 94-142. Now in the Educational Amendments of 1974, the state entitlement formula was established, confidentiality requirements were mandated, and due process protections for parents and handicapped children were put in place. In Public Law 94-142 the right of every handicapped child to a free and appropriate public education was assured. We have provided a new entitlement formula, additional due process protections, requirements for individualized programs in education, requirements for nondiscriminatory testing, and a timetable which the states must meet when providing necessary educational and training services to handicapped children.

Could you describe some of the early efforts to provide services for handicapped individuals?

Sen. Randolph: Back in 1936, President Franklin Roosevelt signed the Randolph-Sheppard Vending Facility Act. Through this Act blind persons were authorized to operate vending stands in federal buildings in order to enlarge their economic opportunities. I feel that this Act was not only a breakthrough for the blind, but in a sense, it gave independence to many handicapped groups. It helped open the doors for all handicapped persons to meet the challenges of life.

I remember that when the bill was being considered over in the House, there were many people, including the Assistant Postmaster General, who said it was fine to help the blind, but you must be realistic, blind people just can't do these jobs. My response was, let's just give them a chance, let's see what they can do. And they've done it. There are about 3800 active participants now. They are entrepreneurs in the marketplace. They are right there selling, meeting people, and participating in society.

In 1964 Gallaudet College, which is the only institution of higher education for the deaf in the world, was the first educational facility to receive federal funds in special education for the handicapped. It marked a new era in special education, and it set a pattern for programs for schools for the hearing impaired. Over the years the research techniques and procedures developed at Gallaudet have made vital contributions to not only hearing impaired Americans but hearing impaired individuals throughout the world. Today Gallaudet provides not only a liberal arts education to those with impaired hearing, but also an array of services to the deaf and hearing impaired from preschool to graduate levels, including the training of professionals for teaching and, of course, parents who must understand the process and be a part of it. Together with its sister institution, the National Technical Institute for the Deaf in Rochester, New York, there is truly freedom of choice—a wide variety of careers for deaf Americans.

What do you see as some of the issues that will require further clarification as we get into this new legislation?

Sen. Randolph: Certainly some of the issues over the next few years that will be most prominent are due process protection, individual planning with sufficient frequency to ensure what I call "appropriate" placement, nondiscrimination, and the requirement for placement in the least restrictive environment. We are going to have discussions and debate over the best way to assure that handicapped children receive the full benefits from the new requirements under Public Law 94-142. Of course it's difficult for me as a Senator or Chairman of the Subcommittee on the Handicapped to say precisely what's going to happen in the future, but I do have a very deep conviction, a very real hope, that handicapped children have come to be considered a part of the regular educational setting. We do not want them to be set aside as different.

To me, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act is a key to a rebirth in education.—Senator Harrison Williams

Senator Harrison Williams, Democrat from New Jersey and Chairman of the Senate Labor and Public Welfare Committee also reflected on some of the issues that the Congress will be facing in the future.

Sen. Williams: I expect that in the next few years Congress will reexamine the entire role of the federal government in education and the prospects for more general aid to assist states in the process of school finance equalization.

I have no doubt that in this examination of issue we will look very carefully at the model we have developed in the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. We will try to build into any school finance proposal a formulation for cooperative planning and individualized instruction such as is found in this Act. For gifted children, who have often been ignored in the educational process because they do have such incredible ability, we must concentrate on methods of assisting them to develop their talents in a way which allows them to continue to feel comfortable among their peers. And we must assist state and local school systems to develop programs uniquely designed to meet these special needs in an environment which does not require forced separation.

Could you tell us a little bit more of how the Education for All Handicapped Children Act could serve as a model for other educational legislation?

Sen. Williams: To me, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act is a key to a rebirth in education.

It is forthright in what it requires. It is clear in what it means. It means that each of our children, handicapped or otherwise, has a right to an appropriate education as guaranteed by our state laws and protected by the Constitution.

It envisions a cooperative process which recognizes the unique role of parents, teachers, administrators, and the public at large. It respects each of these roles, whether the meeting of minds comes through a planning process, the bargaining process, or a due process hearing.

It focuses its support on the unique educational needs of handicapped children, and reinforces the individualization of education. And it is that focus—on each individual child as a whole human being—that has always been and must continue to be the cornerstone of education.

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act is grounded on the principle that each of us cares about one another as individuals. All of us are different. All of us have our own special needs. Our education system must be responsive to that simple truth.

I think that the legislation is constructed in a way that will cause the states to be certain all handicapped children are reached.—Mr. Carl Perkins

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Representative Carl D. Perkins, Democrat from Kentucky, Chairman of the House Committee on Education and Labor, also Chairman of the Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education, sees future appropriations as a possible impediment to carrying out legislation.

Rep. Perkins: The landmark legislation that we've got on the books perhaps will face the biggest obstacle in the budget and appropriation process. Many of us have attempted to see that the program was adequately funded. I don't think we are going to reach a level of funding by fiscal year 1978 that will be satisfactory to me, to a majority of members, or to all handicapped people. But a start has been made and we will make good progress. I think now that the landmark legislation has passed it will be a struggle every year to obtain appropriations that will be necessary to provide even a minimum program for the handicapped. Hopefully we can gradually increase the appropriations to the point where we will be providing quality special education for all children who can benefit from it.

Do you think that the states will have any problems enacting the new legislation?

Rep. Perkins: Some of the states are going to make more progress than others. The boards that we have in the states to administer it do not all work as fast as we would like. Agencies, like people, hate to change their ways. But we have written the law in such a way as to make sure that the handicapped are well represented on boards that make education policy and allocate funds. This will bring about more rapid and more positive state action.

In some programs, matching funds are required from the states. A state legislature cannot afford to sit idly by and see these funds not used for the handicapped children of the state while other states strengthen their programs. I think that the legislation is constructed in a way that will cause the states to be certain all handicapped children are reached.

Representative Perkins was particularly concerned about children who have never received any education or services.

Rep. Perkins: Throughout the district that I am privileged to represent I've seen many children with urgent needs but without any assistance whatsoever. It just makes my blood boil over to see a child who needs assistance not enrolled in any program. With this in mind, in writing the legislation, I attempted to make certain that these long neglected children would be provided with the special educational services they require.

You can look at all the statistics in the world, but if you see one child progress, that will hook you!—Mr. Albert Quie

The final Congressman to be interviewed was Representative Albert H. Quie, Republican from Minnesota. Representative Quie is also a member of the House Committee on Education and Labor, and the Subcommittee on Elementary, Secondary, and Vocational Education. The Congressman commented on a group of children who have not yet received adequate legislative attention.

What do you see as the major legislative landmarks and other national level events that have brought education for the handicapped and gifted to its present stage?

Rep. Quie: We've really not done much for the gifted. It's true that we have some little amendments and one special program for the gifted, but when we see the potential of what gifted individuals can contribute to our country, I think we have not even begun to develop this valuable human resource. I think one of the reasons we haven't is that we're afraid that it smacks of elitism, but I think that's a mistake in our attitude. All of our student aid programs now are really geared toward low income families. This focus stems from the feeling that with the right kind of training and program mix everybody could end up the same, which is a bunch of nonsense. When one reads what Daniel Bell has written on meritocracy, you see that some people have skills that are different from others. Individuals with special skills ought to have the opportunity to develop them to the greatest potential possible. So far gifted legislation has not provided the special programs that we have with the handicapped or with the disadvantaged. We need to move ahead in this area.

How did you become interested in the area of education for the handicapped and gifted children?

Rep. Quie: I experienced a kind of awakening between 1955-1957 when I participated in an intercommission study in Minnesota on the problems of exceptional children. During that time I got to know parents of mentally retarded children and saw the trauma each family went through when they found out that their child was severely handicapped. I also know parents who had children with special talents and saw the joy that they experienced.

You don't forget what it's like to see a blind child or a deaf child start some formal education and then see the improvement that can be made. I recall being present when a deaf child finally learned how to talk and for the first time could say to his mother, "I love you." The emotional reaction of the teacher and mother was something greater than a child taking his first step. When a person really had a love for a handicapped child . . . some amazing things would occur.

There's nothing quite as strong as seeing the kids. You can look at all the statistics in the world, but if you see one child progress, that will hook you!

The kind of challenge I see for special education is to individualize it, to be more specific about our objectives so that we know what it is we want to try to help youngsters learn, to make sure the parents are involved in it, to involve the youngsters themselves where appropriate, and to have a sense of accounting as to whether we get there or not.—Dr. Edwin Martin, Jr.

Moving along the parade route to the viewing stand occupied by administrators from the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped of the US Office of Education we see Edwin W. Martin and Jasper Harvey watching the activity.

Dr. Martin is the acting Deputy Commissioner for Education of the Handicapped and has been with BEH since its creation in 1966. Dr. Harvey is the newly appointed Director of the Division of Personnel Preparation for the Bureau and past President of CEC. Dr. Martin was asked to reflect on some of the major landmarks that have brought the education of the handicapped and gifted to its present stage.

Dr. Martin: The development in the states of first permissive and then mandatory laws set the stage for the beginning of federal involvement. Congress began to see the possibility of using federal education funds as a way of helping bring about some solutions to major national education problems. For example, the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act in 1965 aimed at trying to compensate for some of the disadvantages of racial minorities. The thinking that perhaps federal funds could be used to help focus attention on areas where there was a failure at state and local levels set the stage for the first Education of the Handicapped Act that was passed in 1966 and provided a small program of grants to states. It also created the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped as part of the US Office of Education and the national advisory committee—tremendously important developments because having a strong administrative unit that reports directly to the Commissioner of Education or the equivalent in the states is really a key to being able to get resources and develop public policies.

The next major step, which was articulated in 1970-1971, was to push for a national goal of education for all handicapped children. This goal is now part of the law under the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. Key milestones between 1966 and 1975 were the Pennsylvania decision and the District of Columbia decision which established the rights of handicapped children to an education under the 14th Amendment, the equal protection clause.

Parent involvement at the state level was a potent political force also. The sensitivity among elected officials to parent concern overcame the resistance of educators in providing services. People who feel that the system is not responsive could take a little heart from looking at the history of state and federal involvement, all brought about by legislative groups' being responsive to citizens' needs. I think that's a great lesson at a time when people are very cynical about the government being unresponsive. The fact is that just in the federal program alone we've gone from $30 million to half a billion dollars in 10 years, almost all of it on the basis of citizen involvement with the legislative body.

The attitudes of people toward the handicapped have been changing over the past 10 years too. We're more human than we were before. We tend to see handicapped citizens as fellow human beings more than we did—not enough, but more than we did.

The main concept that I tried to establish as the basis for federal policy was the right to an education. This was very much in keeping with what the courts were doing. We got former Commissioner Marland to establish education of the handicapped as a priority in the Office of Education and to call for a national goal. Since then former Commissioner Bell has also been strong in support of that kind of approach. The Right to Education became a public issue, and ultimately the Congress decided that, while the state and local governments were responsible, they wanted to play a larger role in helping assure the right to education for all handicapped children.

What do you see as the major challenges to implementing the current legislation?

Dr. Martin: Patterns of delivery of service may well be the greatest problem. For example, where states have developed a delivery system that relies almost totally on a given kind of approach for a group of children, let's say all Type A children are in special schools, all Type B children are in institutions. I think parents and other groups will challenge that type system and see it as being based on a class basis or a group basis rather than on a basis of the individual needs of the children who are in them. I think this kind of challenge will be a problem because there is a lot of historic commitment to that notion of separate schools and separate places.

On the other hand, a lot of people are saying right now that they think this Act or the Bureau and the Act both are attempting to destroy all special centers or all special schools. I don't see anything in the Act that suggests that. My personal belief is that there are in fact very useful programs that are specially designed for a group of handicapped children. The children may not need to be in them all the years of their schooling, but there are times when, for example, an emotionally disturbed child may be best served in a special facility. That kind of program should be part of our ability to respond in special education.

There are some people who feel as though any special school is a segregated school, and any segregated school is illegal. I don't equate special facility with a segregated facility any more than I think a cancer hospital is a segregated hospital in a negative sense. It's possible to develop institutions that specialize in a particular kind of educational task or medical task. You know, MIT is not a segregated facility just because it specializes in technology. In cases where youngsters are being assigned to programs—whether they're mainstream programs or special schools—as an administrative convenience, not on the basis of their individual needs, I think there will be some problems. On the other hand, educators are kidding themselves if they think some people won't object to the mainstreaming of their children because they *will*, and particularly if they don't think the youngster is getting enough intensive instructional experience. They may see the mainstreamed program as less instruction, less "special" than the special class program to which they have become accustomed.

Another problem is the fact that we don't know exactly the number of unserved children. This is creating a certain amount of anxiety at the state and local level. Some people are afraid that they will be engulfed with a horde of unserved children. I believe that a relatively small proportion of unserved children are actually excluded from the schools or on waiting lists demanding service. The larger number of children who need additional help, I think, are in the system, but they're sort of muddling through because they're not getting the help that they should have. Children needing special education will tend to come to light in a somewhat gradual way as services improve and as more and more children are enrolled. Ultimately I think our estimates of the numbers of children requiring special education (approximately 12% of school age children) will prove to be right or even conservative.

There's no arbitrary cutoff point between handicapped and normal kids. Some of the youngsters who need special education kinds of services are in that middle ground between the theoretically normal child and the so-called handicapped child. For the time being, the federal law won't fund more than 12% of that school age population, but the states may well find that as they set up good special education programs, they're going to want to be working with additional youngsters who show mild to moderate differences in learning or behavioral styles. It's already happening in several states which estimate they will serve 15, 16, 17% of their youngsters in programs, not for the "handicapped" per se, but programs that provide special assistance, like tutorial help or counseling. The 12% figure doesn't necessarily mean that the same 12% of the children will be handicapped every year. For example, a lot of youngsters might have some emotional problems in adolescence or in a family crisis or a divorce, and during those times they might need some help. But they wouldn't necessarily need help every year from kindergarten to 12th grade. The same goes for children with speech problems or language problems.

It may well be that the most intense period of instruction would be up through the 5th grade. This may also be true for youngsters who are mildly retarded. Many of them may be able to be included in vocational educational programs in high school. People have to understand that every youngster does not require 100% special education program for every year of his schooling. I think that's what makes people think the demand may be greater than it really will be. There will be some situations where there are more children who are going to require services than the district is prepared to pay for.

More serious than the problem of numbers of children enrolled will be really implementing quality education programing for all special education. I don't think we have it now; I don't think all the special education programs are uniformly excellent from school to school, district to district, teacher to teacher; I don't think the regular education programs are either, as far as that's concerned. But I think there are a lot of youngsters who are getting a kind of special education programing which I would hope would be improved over the years in a number of ways. I would hope it would be more individually tailored to their learning needs because I don't think all of the kids in a class for the retarded are in fact identical in their learning needs.

In the past we've assumed that if the youngster was retarded in intellectual development, that was the most important thing about him or her. We didn't really bother with matching such things as physical education, art, music, and humanities to their appropriate level of ability. We ought to move in that direction because those things can be highly motivational. For many youngsters, we're not going to be able to change the deficit, whatever it might be, in a permanent way, but we can help build a total constellation of abilities, thereby improving a child's feelings about himself and increasing his motivation for learning and for work. Life is more than just learning to sum up numbers.

The kind of challenge I see for special education is to individualize it, to be more specific about our objectives so that we know what it is we want to try to help youngsters learn, to make sure the parents are involved in it, to involve the youngsters themselves where appropriate, and to have a sense of accounting as to whether we get there or not. The technology is being developed now to do that.

People are thinking more about setting objectives; people are thinking more about how to measure behavior; people are thinking more about how to manage behavior; and generally people feel more confident than they did in the past that they can have an effect.

Public Law 94-142 requires states to report the number of children being served in each disability category. How will this affect states that have moved away from categorical programs?

Dr. Martin: I think Congress felt it was necessary to require categorical counts because they were trying to get a handle on the nature of the problem. It was very hard for them to deal with appropriations as long as nobody could tell them how many children we're talking about and what kind of disabilities prevailed. I think Congress felt that it would be more orderly if they could discipline people to look at the population in that way and so they sort of imposed homework on the states.

States like Maryland, Massachusetts, and a number of others have a real problem because they've been trying to move away from that kind of accounting and reporting and to build their reimbursement systems for special education programing on the basis of a particular instructional program or need. I think that's a good direction to move in. However what the states should do is to accommodate by counting children by categories during this transitional period but continue to develop the instructional programs noncategorically. You don't have to organize the instructional programs in the same way you count the children. Just because we're asking for this information by group doesn't mean states ought to organize classes that way or provide instructional programs that way.

What the Bureau will do is collect the information the way the Congress required. At the same time we're going to encourage the development of alternative systems on an experimental basis that might assure effective management and at the same time reduce the necessity for labeling children. Folks from the states will have to come in and discuss with us and with Congress the utility of the new systems. I don't think Congress wants to take it on faith, and really shouldn't.

Over the years there has been a change in people's attitudes about testing. Recent litigation has challenged the validity of using test scores for placing children in special programs and for selecting competent employees. What is your feeling about the testing issue?

Dr. Martin: The single major failure in testing, in my experience, has been that those of us who use tests and who develop tests have not wanted to look at the validity of tests in operational practice. Let's look at an example removed from intelligence testing. There isn't one of us who's been through school who hasn't had the experience of teachers asking questions about material they hadn't taught. Perhaps they did this because they were anxious to make sure we knew important facts. They decided to test us about this information in hope that somehow that process would teach the children about those facts.

I've also had reservations about various certification procedures based on asking prospective teachers what they know about given disabilities rather than observing whether or not they were able to teach the children. You have a system that's developed its credentialing or its testing without ever having to demonstrate that in fact knowing those answers made a real difference in the situation in question. In my area of training, for example, you can know a great deal about speech disorders and get high test scores and still be an inadequate clinician. People have been unwilling, because it's a more difficult task, to tie their testing back to actual skills.

I think that the identification of kids with various handicaps has suffered from the same type problem. Here's a youngster: he's got some problems; he's not doing so well. We give him an IQ test; he gets 68. Aha! Now we know something about him: he's retarded. That makes us all sigh with relief. If the same kid weren't retarded, then we would have a real problem; we wouldn't know why he was performing like that. So perhaps we would conjure up a disability—like learning disabilities. We would say, "Well, he's got a learning disability. That's why he doesn't respond any better. And he's not retarded because he scores too well."

In part, that's why people are having trouble defining learning disabilities. They created an event or an "it" to explain something rather than to say in behavioral terms, this is the way he behaves, this is what he can do, this is what he can't do, this is what we should do about it instructionally. To make us a little more comfortable, to make us feel like we know a little more about this child and what we can do about it, we find it more comfortable to call him by a label, call him learning disabled or emotionally disturbed.

Although testing has led us into that, it's not really testing's fault. It's the way we've thought about people—it's that quest for the homogeneity of groups that's really led us into this problem, for we haven't been able to deal comfortably with kids on what they do, what they need, what we can do, and how they respond. There's a great movement to change that however.

One of the more recent trends involving education of exceptional children is the federal funding of some programs for the gifted and talented. How does the Bureau view these efforts?

Dr. Martin: We see the involvement of the Bureau with the gifted much the way The Council for Exceptional Children does—that is, we're interested in the individual characteristics of kids and how they learn. We are interested in trying to create an environment for them in which they can prosper. A lot of people say, "Isn't it funny, to group the gifted and the handicapped together?" I don't think it is because we're not really saying that the gifted are handicapped in any generic sense. What we're saying is that a good educational system is going to have to develop unique responses to unique kids, and we're as interested in seeing that happen for gifted kids as we are for the handicapped.

The legislation governing programs for the Gifted and Talented (Public Law 93-380) is a complex bill where dollars are divided according to a formula. This arrangement makes it impossible to get more money for the gifted without getting more money for the whole formula, which involves eight or nine other programs. I think the Congress is going to have a hard time coming to terms with that during the appropriations or funding process. They feel like they have to buy everything if they want to buy anything. I would hope that that could be amended, allowing the Congress to exercise its priorities in relation to the gifted. In talking with various members of Congress, there seems to be a realization that we haven't done enough for the gifted and they are a resource that we ought to fully use as a nation. So I think there'll be more legislation in this area.

The probable impact of providing a free, appropriate, public education for all exceptional children will be a systemic change within the public schools so that exceptional children become less exceptional and that the so-called normal child becomes more individually educated.—Dr. Jasper Harvey

The first legislation appropriating federal funds for training teachers of the handicapped was passed in 1958. Dr. Harvey recalls the nature of that and subsequent legislation.

Dr. Harvey: In early September of 1958, Congress enacted Public Law 85-926. That particular piece of legislation was especially significant in that it committed the federal government to meeting basic educational needs for mentally retarded children. Public Law 85-926 authorized grants to colleges and universities for the training of leadership personnel in mental retardation and a second type of grants to state education agencies for training teachers of the mentally retarded. President Kennedy gave support to the broadening of the commitments under Public Law 85-926 on February 5, 1963 when he urged that it be broadened to include all handicapped children. With the passage of Public Law 88-164, which amended Public Law 85-926, the law was expanded to include: "mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, crippled, or other health impaired children who by reason thereof require special education." A number of other efforts to expand personnel preparation were in the area of physical education and recreation. These culminated with the passage of Public Law 90-170 which authorized programs in physical education and recreation. Public Law 91-230 and later 93-380 reinforced the federal commitment to exceptional children. The most recent legislation, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, Public Law 94-142, will have far reaching implications especially in the area of inservice training.

One factor that needs to be considered very carefully is that a tremendous number of different kinds of individuals with various skills have a place in the education of children. The appropriate utilization of these skills in terms of transmitting them to others must be met. Simply stated, the placement of appropriate personnel to assure that children are maintained in their least restrictive environments will require vastly different staffing and training patterns. Many of the patterns are already in use but they do not necessarily appear as part of the training programs in colleges and universities.

If you could project 10 to 15 years into the future, in what new directions do you think education of exceptional children will be moving?

Dr. Harvey: The growth of early education for the handicapped since 1969 has actually been phenomenal. There are indications that if we can place children into appropriate kinds of developmental settings at the earliest possible period after birth, work with their parents, and understand that the education function may be as simple as good parent support and training, then we can begin to have many youngsters ready for regular elementary school by the time they are six. Hopefully, the transition period from early education for the handicapped programs into the regular schools will be in place within the next few years. The probable impact of providing a free, appropriate, public education for all exceptional children will be a systemic change within the public schools so that exceptional children become less exceptional and that the so-called normal child becomes more individually educated.

The likelihood that there will not be children with any kind of dysfunction in the foreseeable future seems remote. There will be a continuing need for special education teachers but many of them will serve as support personnel except for those who deal with the more severely impaired. What I'm saying is that I think special education will be very much a part of a regular education with special services almost assumed and taken for granted.

I feel that there will be continued and concerted efforts on the part of special educators to work with general educators to fully implement the least restrictive environment concept.—Dr. Philip Jones

When handicapped children are regarded as first class constituents and not as fringe concerns, then many problems are solved.—Mr. William Geer

At the reviewing stand of The Council for Exceptional Children a discussion is in progress between CEC's Executive Director, William C. Geer, and CEC past President Philip Jones. They are discussing some new areas of concern to the Council.

Do you foresee federal policy changes and increased financial support for gifted children?

Dr. Jones: It is very appropriate that the term, "exceptional," be broadened to include the gifted as well as the handicapped child. When the policy statement for the gifted was signed by the US Office of Education in the fall of 1975, prospects for direct federal involvement in the area of the gifted were enhanced. Although the amounts of federal money associated with the education of the gifted are not terribly significant, at this point in time it appears that many legislators and educators are supporting involvement of the gifted under the aegis of special education. I expect there will be increasing federal involvement as well as substantial state planning in this area. I believe that states that have not yet made provisions for the education of their gifted children will now begin to make firm plans for them. I see implementation taking place with relative immediacy and continuing into the future.

Mr. Geer: USOE's 1975 policy statement on the gifted is another attempt to bring gifted education into the realm of organized planning within the public school setting. And, we may succeed this time. As early as the 1920's there were several attempts to educate gifted children, and as a result a number of public school programs for the gifted were developed. The Cleveland program, which was initiated during this period, continues to this day. The National Defense Education Act, which was enacted in the 1950's, prioritized subject areas such as language, science, and math for the general education community and these priorities were a part of the total effort toward educational enrichment of the national school population. As it was initially envisioned, National Defense Education funds were to be channeled toward the gifted; however, the measure was diluted to the extent that the target population was not primarily gifted children. Now, however, the present statutes are so definitive that, if we can succeed in getting adequate funding behind them, educational programs for the gifted, a movement that claims a 50 year history, will finally become a reality.

Dr. Jones: And it is important to note that today the talented child is included as an appropriate recipient of programing for the gifted. And because talented students now are included under the umbrella of the gifted, programs have a better chance to gain financial support.

Abused and neglected children often suffer developmental deficiencies which handicap their learning capabilities. What is the Council doing to help in the education of these children?

Dr. Jones: The Council for Exceptional Children is quite appropriately interested in the prevention as well as the treatment of handicapping conditions and special educators are acutely aware that many children who are subject to abuse can develop handicaps which inhibit their ability to learn in public school settings. It is more than appropriate that the Council attend to the problems of abused and neglected children.

Mr. Geer: As far as I am aware, no single organization includes abused children as its target service population. The Council for Exceptional Children is very interested in the education of abused and neglected children in addition to the prevention of this handicapping condition. And the Council is no longer harnessed by educational priorities alone; if we perceive new and necessary directions in the service to handicapped children, we will respond to them.

Currently the Council has undertaken a project related to curriculum and child abuse and neglect. The curriculum we propose is the result of a request that various organizations take experimental steps in the areas of abuse and neglect. CEC plans to conduct a training program here in our headquarters that will extend to all the legal jurisdictions around us and to many other organizations as well. We plan to work through CEC Chapters to select approximately four representative groups that would utilize the CEC developed curriculum in depth. It is hoped that we can broaden the knowledge of our chapter members as well as inform the local communities in which the chapters are located. The third focus of the child abuse curriculum would be to develop a working relationship between selected colleges and universities for the use of the curriculum within the scope of course requirements.

What do you see as the role of CEC in the expansion of special education into the legislative community?

Dr. Jones: The past efforts of the Council include activities at all levels of government in addition to the legislative; however, CEC has been particularly instrumental at the legislative level. In most instances legislative mandates have been achieved and have become practical realities for handicapped children. However, full implementation of the mandates for the education of all exceptional children is an item that must be actualized in the years to come. But, the Council is especially valuable in its monitoring of legislative intent.

Mr. Geer: An important arm of CEC's legislative effort is CEC's action force, PAN (Political Action Network). And it is important that we continue to work toward PAN's growth and development on the national level. PAN adds a new link between the national office and state federations, divisions, and Student CEC. Each federation and division, as well as Student CEC appoints a coordinator whose responsibility it is to help the national CEC office carry out governmental objectives and who, in turn receives assistance from headquarters to carry out local legislative objectives. For example, the national office provides a PAN coordinator with information regarding appropriations for Public Law 94-142. Then the PAN coordinator uses these facts to inform local congresspeople about the implications of the law.

It is important that the Council work to assure that our local chapters are attuned to their congresspeople. In the practical sense the PAN effort helps chapters with information regarding what goes on in the world of handicapped and gifted children so that, in addition to letter writing campaigns, chapters can invite legislators to chapter meetings and provide consistent information to them over the long term, rather than only when a particular bill is under consideration.

Dr. Jones: PAN is one of the most effective vehicles that the Council has developed in recent years to expand knowledge directly to the legislative community. I saw PAN as having a great impact on the passage of Public Law 94-142 and subsequently the President's signing of the Education For All Handicapped Children Act. This response, at the White House level, is a direct result of PAN's coordinated efforts.

Mr. Geer: And PAN has gone beyond the Act itself, into the area of appropriations. It now appears that, as a result of PAN's work and the increasingly positive congressional climate, a considerably higher appropriation may result.

How do you perceive the Council's involvement with the larger community of regular educators?

Dr. Jones: The concept of the least restrictive environment ("mainstreaming," as it is commonly called) is one that does in fact directly involve the general education community in providing services to handicapped children. I feel that there will be continued and concerted efforts on the part of special educators to work with general educators to fully implement the least restrictive environment concept. I would say that one of our greatest concerns with regard to general educators is not so much their resistance to working with handicapped children as it is their limited knowledge in areas of exceptionality. The

Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, through their system of training grants, provides funds to schools of education for the integration of special education curricula into the general education course work. In addition, various states have federal training grant programs that focus on providing general educators with assistance in implementation of the least restrictive environment concept. Hopefully, these training activities will continue to grow over the next 10 year period.

I read your response to the National Education Association's "Definition of Mainstreaming," where you emphasized that their statement which described mainstreaming as, "the integration of all handicapped children into the standard classroom," was essentially erroneous. Do you feel that the regular education community has been either confused or misinformed about the concept, and if so, what can be done to right the wrong?

Dr. Jones: I think there has been some misinformation and the term, "mainstreaming," itself has been one of the problems. Certainly, it is not appropriate that every handicapped child be educated in the regular class setting—and in essence this is what I attempted to convey to NEA. The concerns on the part of regular educators are a result of lack of information and misinformation. The Council has the obligation to ensure that the general education community is adequately and appropriately informed as to what the least restrictive environment is all about and what it means in the day to day lives of children in schools.

Mr. Geer: Few special educators are really aware of the problems between special education and regular education, and few are willing to step out on the front line and get involved with general educators—particularly with regard to the requirements of the new law and what has to be done for children to assure compliance. I think some special educators tend to draw back and not be as active as they should be in trying to inform general education about it. I think special education in general and the Council in particular must be very inclusive of general educators in our inservice education programs during the next few years to be sure that we get a meeting of the minds on some of these crucial issues.

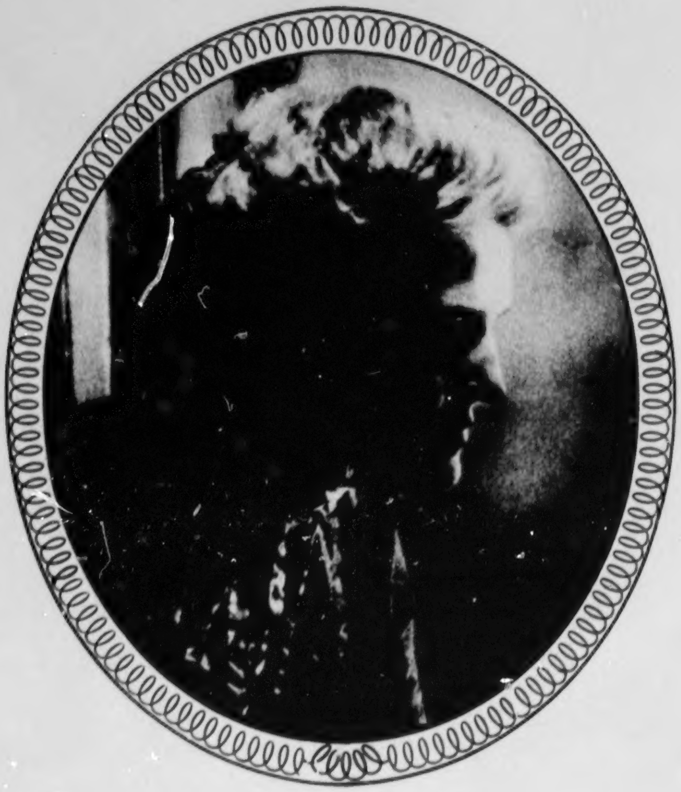
What areas of special education give you a particular sense of optimism about the future?

Mr. Geer: The current move in gifted education stands out as a very optimistic sign for special education in general. We must continue to build and grow in this area so that, for the first time, we offer exceptionally good education programs to gifted children. However, the area that gives me a particular sense of optimism is the acceptance by many general education administrators of their responsibility for the education of handicapped children. When handicapped children are regarded as first class constituents and not as fringe concerns, then many problems are solved. Another very hopeful area is the thrust of federal legislation, not only to provide funds in the education of handicapped children, but to create the legal responsibility to do so. In addition, Bureau (of Education for the Handicapped) appropriations for training personnel and for inservice education are optimistic signs that the pieces of the puzzle are beginning to fit together.

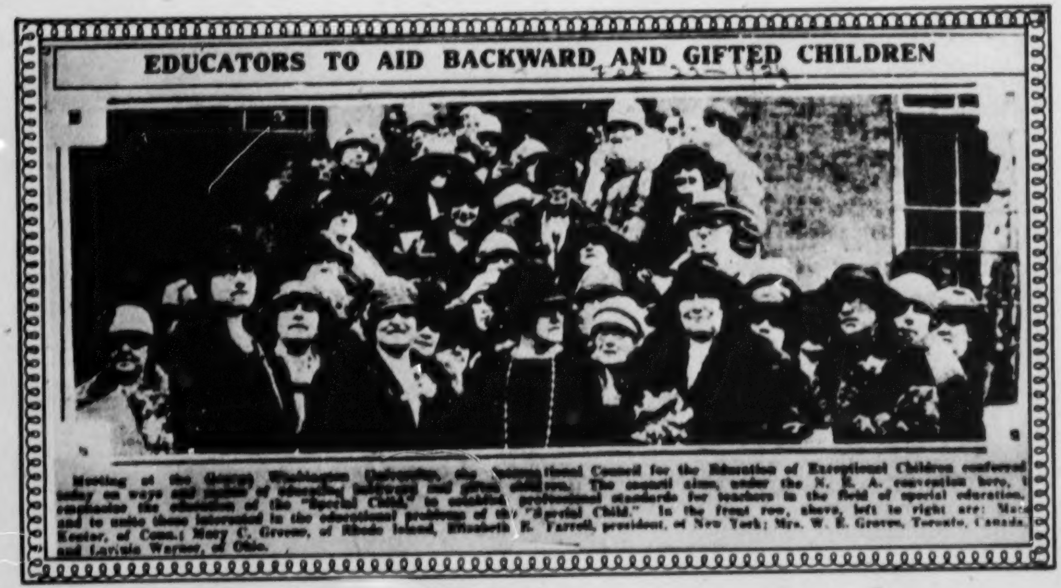
Dr. Jones: Optimistic feelings began for me with the PARC decision and continued through to the concept that the overall responsibility for the education of handicapped children rests with the local education agency. Even for children in institutions this responsibility applies. Also, in many instances, institutional programs have lagged behind general developments in special education, but this is changing for the better. And the impact of Public Law 94-142 in the area of deinstitutionalization is a direct and optimistic followup to the PARC decision and one to watch in the future.

Mr. Geer: I believe that every time the status quo is disturbed, it creates problems for people who have been living and working within it for so long that they have difficulty anticipating anything new. But when special educators perceive new resources as well as new legal responsibility, the total array of special services will improve. We will become more responsible and more responsive than we have been in the past.

Dr. Jones: Personally I am very optimistic with regard to the future of The Council for Exceptional Children. The Council has made and will make a significant impact in each of the areas discussed today and will expand its already commanding leadership role for the greater benefit of handicapped and gifted children.



Elizabeth E. Farrell

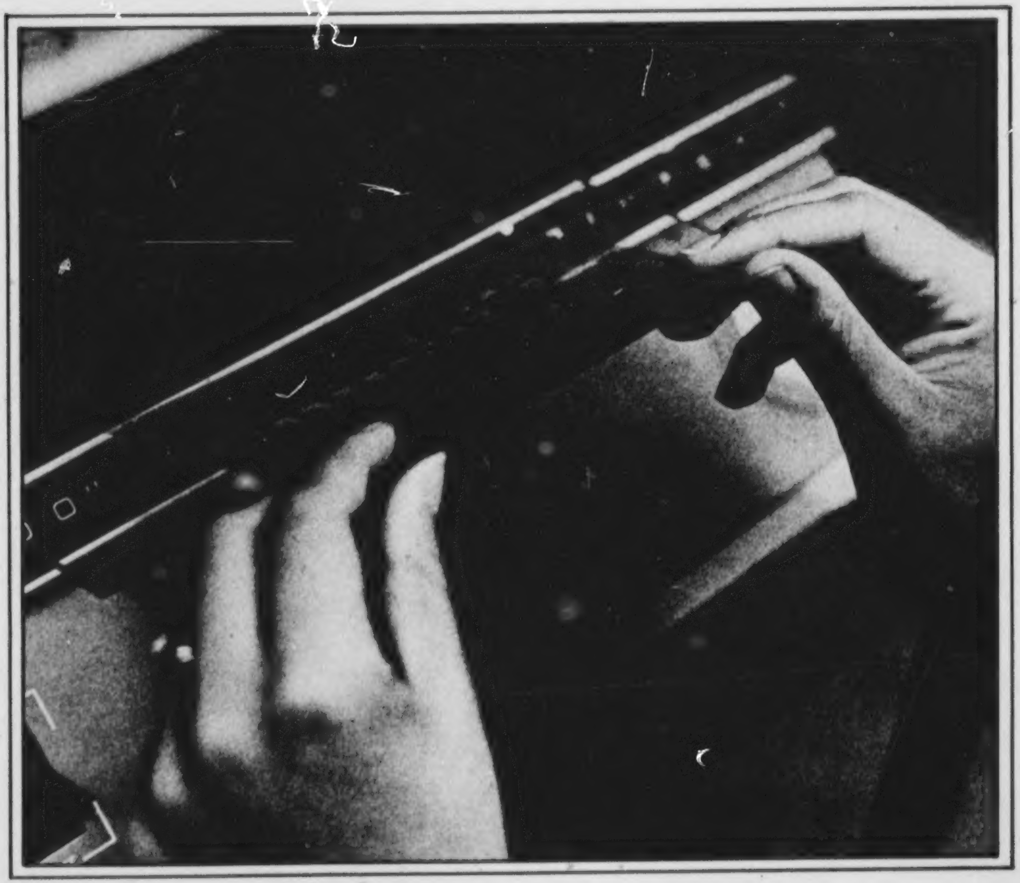


EDUCATORS TO AID BACKWARD AND GIFTED CHILDREN

Feb 22 [illegible]

Meeting at the George Washington University, the International Council for the Education of Exceptional Children conferred today on ways and means of educating backward and gifted children. The council aims, under the N. E. A. convention here, t emphasize the education of the "Special Child," to establish professional standards for teachers in the field of special education, and to unite those interested in the educational problems of the "Special Child." In the front row, above, left to right are: Mar Keator, of Conn.; Mary C. Greene, of Rhode Island, Elizabeth E. Farrell, president, of New York; Mrs. W. E. Groves, Toronto, Canada, and Lavinia Warner, of Ohio.

MILESTONES ALONG THE WAY



AMERICAN REVOLUTION BICENTENNIAL 1776-1976

Especially for Special Educators:

A Sense of Our Own History

BARBARA AIELLO

- One of the earliest volumes in special education, *Laggards in Our Schools*, was written in 1915 by Leonard P. Ayres. The book was used in special education teacher training classes and provided the first account of the discrepancy between instruction in public schools and the underachievement of many students.
- Elizabeth Farrell taught a graduate course in special education at Teachers' College, Columbia during the summer of 1922. The members of that class, seeing the need for consistent sharing and exchanging of ideas and philosophies, decided to meet regularly on an annual basis. Those meetings mark the birth of The Council for Exceptional Children, with Elizabeth Farrell as its first president.
- April 1928 marks the birth of CEC's first publication, the *Newsletter of the International Council for Exceptional Children*. It was edited by Eleanor Gray of New York, and the last issue was published in 1932 only a few months prior to the bank crash. When the economic situation stabilized, Harley Z Wooden, later to become the first executive secretary of the Council, proposed that the Council publish a new journal, *The Journal Review*. He managed the entire publication operation from his own home and supplemented the Council's payments with his own money. Wooden's personal dedication kept the journal alive during the depression years until the Council took full responsibility for its publication in the forties.

- Winthrop Phelps, M.D., championed the cause of cerebral palsied children and was the first medical specialist to deal directly with an educational as well as a physical problem. He operated a private school in Baltimore and spent his professional life explaining the nature of the disability and training hundreds of people to work as therapists and teachers for cerebral palsied children.
- The First White House Conference on Child Health and Protection was convened by President Herbert Hoover in 1930. So committed was he to the emerging field of special education that he personally assumed a portion of conference expenses. In 1939 then CEC president Harry Baker invited Hoover to speak at the annual convention in Detroit. Hoover declined, but in a personal letter to Baker recalled his "pleasant association" with the Council and was especially appreciative of the invitation.

Events and people some well known, others obscure, have contributed to the mosaic of concepts, programs, and services for exceptional children and provide today's special educator with a sense of his own very special history.

Thirty special educators, some of whom have worked in the field for over 50 years, were interviewed by CEC staff over the telephone. Their bits and pieces of information, their reminiscences, comments, and their thoughts regarding general trends add color and depth to the emerging historical picture as well as provide scope and perspective regarding the future needs of the field.

This, the first in a series of Bicentennial articles, combines their thoughts on milestone events, pioneers, teacher education and research, the development of The Council for Exceptional Children, and crucial issues and needs in the field today. And, it is more than appropriate in this our Bicentennial year that special educators look to and reflect upon the past as we begin to adapt, change, and broaden for the future. Those interviewed were: Jack W. Birch, Samuel A. Kirk, John Tenny, John J. Lee, Richard Dabney, Harry J. Baker, William Cruickshank, Francis Lord, Eugene Doll, Romaine Mackie, Paul Voelker, John Melcher, Oliver Kolstoe, Ignacy Goldberg, Frances P. Connor, Samuel Ashcroft, Jasper Harvey, Bluma Weiner, Willard Abraham, Lloyd Dunn, Frances Mullen, Harrie Selznick, Burton Blatt, Fred Weintraub, Steve Lilly, James Gallagher, William Geer, Leo Cain, and T. Ernest Newland.

Milestones: Special Events Make Special Education Happen

Samuel Kirk perceived milestone events in special education along three dimensions. "Historically, these events include the initial efforts which heightened public awareness, the development of public programs, and the current stage of public enlightenment."

Fundamental to the development of special services is the dawn of the age of humanism in Europe during the 18th century. "The education of the deaf and blind in France at this time is an important milestone," reported Eugene Doll. "In looking at the training of the deaf, I see the first emergence of special education. The key name here is Jacob Rodrigues Pereire. He astonished everyone by teaching the deaf to speak."

Doll explained that Pereire's work provided basic principles which became axiomatic to the education of the deaf and the mentally retarded.

Doll continued this historical perspective as he viewed Jean Itard's work with Victor, the wild boy of Aveyron, representing the analysis and application of Pereire's principles. "He was a master teacher who developed materials which are in use today," states Doll.

By the middle of the 1800's, the training school concept was conceptualized and operational in France and soon grew throughout other European countries. Lloyd Dunn, as well as many of those interviewed, credited Edward Seguin's residential or training school approach as being the most usable option for the education of exceptional children.

In America during the 1800's there was a simultaneous movement toward the establishment of training schools. The training school or "asylum" concept emigrated to this country along with a host of European educators. In 1817 the first residential school for the deaf was organized in Connecticut by Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet. It was known as the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb at Hartford.

In the 1820's the first training school for the blind opened its doors and by the middle of the century Samuel Gridley Howe had established the Institution for Idiotic Children in Massachusetts. John Lee described Howe as a fiery and blunt man who at one time directed the Perkins School for the Blind and quarreled publicly with the governor of Massachusetts over state support for programs for handicapped children. His open letter to the governor fell into the hands of local newspapers, probably not entirely unbeknownst to Howe, and public furor led to the governor's allocation of funds for special programs throughout the state.

Legislative Changes

Dunn noted that the development of publicly supported special programs began with the passage of compulsory education laws. Rhode Island passed the first such law in 1840; Massachusetts followed in 1851, and by the turn of the century nearly all of the states had laws on their books which delineated public responsibility for the education of their children. Dunn affirmed, "This really was the first time that educators were faced with the question of what to do with the less able youngsters. With the advent of these laws the tracking, sorting, and categorizing of exceptional children began a very significant event."

By 1911, over 100 large city school systems had established special schools and special classes for handicapped children, and a number of states began to subsidize special programs by paying the excess costs of maintaining special classes. Jack Birch reported that during the 1920's an obscure Western Pennsylvania legislator proposed and was responsible for the passage of a bill which provided annual compensation to school districts where special education programs had been established. "I believe it was $20.00 per year, which may have gone a lot further in those days," Birch noted.

Attitudinal Changes

A more aware and enlightened attitude on the part of the general public was generated by the interest the federal government began to show in special education. The majority of special educators interviewed saw the 1930 White House Conference on Child Health and Protection as the milestone most significant to the field in that it marked the first time that special education received national recognition as a legitimate part of the educational community. The conference participants recommended that the Office of Education include a department of special education, and in the early 1930's Elise Martens was appointed senior officer.

Samuel Kirk reported, "Elise held that office for nearly 20 years with only the help of a part time secretary. She did much of the work herself and I remember her as having the initiative and drive of at least 10 people!" Others interviewed shared his opinion. "As far as milestones go, Elise Martens was an event in and of herself."

John Lee noted that on April 8, 1920, Woodrow Wilson signed into law the Federal Civilian Rehabilitation Act which entitled not only veterans but all disabled citizens to training and aid in their growth toward economic independence.

"Although it may seem peculiarly related to special education, the Second World War was a significant milestone for our field," stated William Cruickshank.

> As opposed to the First World War which was a killing war, the Second World War was a maiming war. Tens of thousands of young men and women who left their communities as normal persons returned as disabled citizens. But the fact that they spent their childhood as normal people resulted in an interesting change on the part of people in the community. For example, someone might think, "Joe left us as a good guy when he went into the army. Although he's missing his legs, we knew him as a normal person." Society became more aware of and more accepting of people with disabilities, and this change in attitude was very significant.

After the Second World War, parents were more willing to admit publicly to the presence and the needs of their handicapped children. Consequently, the late forties gave rise to parent organizations for handicapped children.

William Geer reported that the development of parent groups was especially significant.

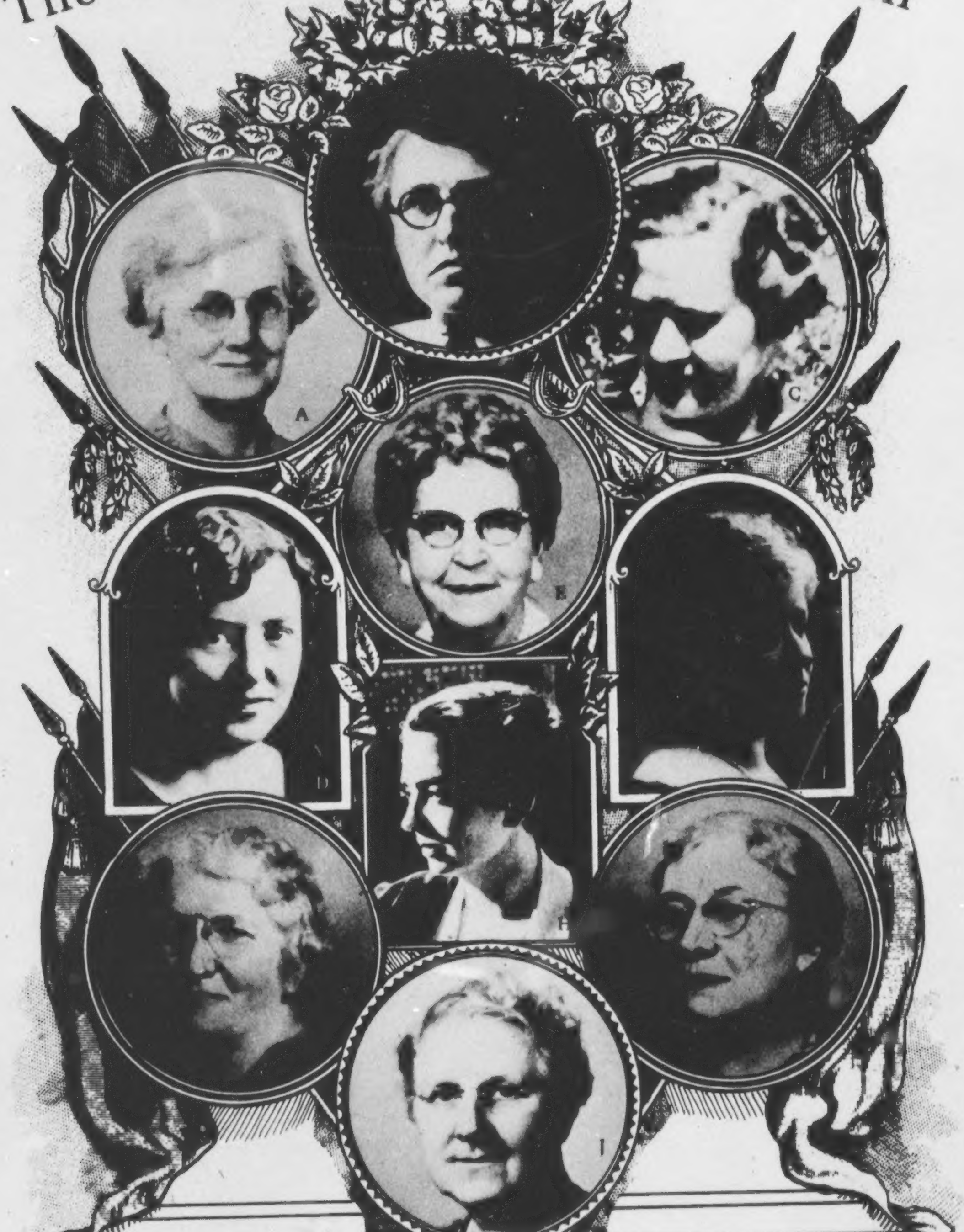
> The National Association for Retarded Citizens, the United Cerebral Palsy, and the American Foundation for the Blind—up to and including the Association for Children with Learning Disabilities and the parent groups for the gifted children have provided national visibility for exceptional children. Parent groups are also responsible for the direct political pressure which resulted in the special education litigation of the 1960's and 70's.

And, finally, interviewees were unanimous in their acknowledgement of The Council for Exceptional Children as the "umbrella" milestone which has provided consistent direction and leadership in the field throughout the years. Ignacy Goldberg emphasized that, "When I think about legislation and the recent litigation efforts, I see CEC as having been the powerhouse behind it all."

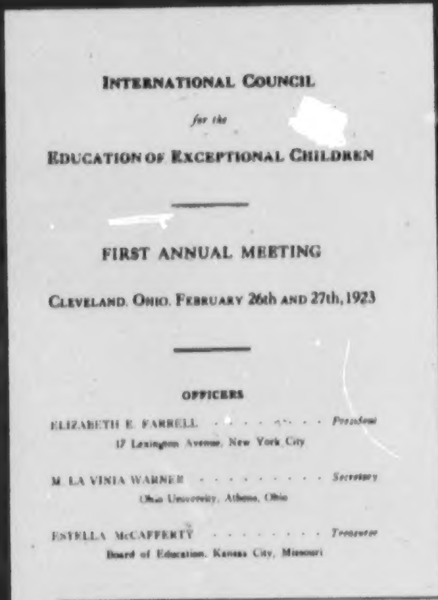
Pioneers in Special Education

Edward Seguin was described by many of those interviewed as the person most responsible for significant and positive change in the development of special services. His training school concept ushered in a public attitude of hope and a belief in the potential of handicapped individuals.

FOUNDING MEMBERS of The Council for Exceptional Children



(A) Jennie L. Ball; *(B)* Elizabeth E. Farrell; *(C)* Henrietta A. Johnson; *(D)* M. LaVinia Warner; *(E)* Estella McCafferty; *(F)* Imogene Palen; *(G)* Alice C. Smithick; *(H)* Helen Hayes Harman; *(I)* Maud Keator; *(J)* Alice H. Smith;



INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL

for the

EDUCATION OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

FIRST ANNUAL MEETING

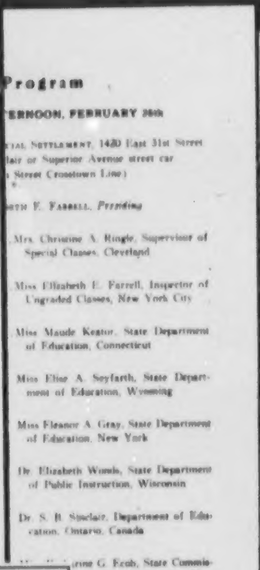
CLEVELAND, OHIO, FEBRUARY 26th AND 27th, 1923

OFFICERS

ELIZABETH E. FARRELL . . . . *President*
17 Lexington Avenue, New York City

M. LA VINIA WARNER . . . . *Secretary*
Ohio University, Athens, Ohio

ESTELLA McCAFFERTY . . . . *Treasurer*
Board of Education, Kansas City, Missouri



Program

TERNOON, FEBRUARY 26th

CIAL SETTLEMENT, 1420 East 31st Street
lair or Superior Avenue street car
Street Crosstown Line)

BETH E. FARRELL, *Presiding*

Mrs. Christine A. Ringle, Supervisor of Special Classes, Cleveland

Miss Elizabeth E. Farrell, Inspector of Ungraded Classes, New York City

Miss Maude Keator, State Department of Education, Connecticut

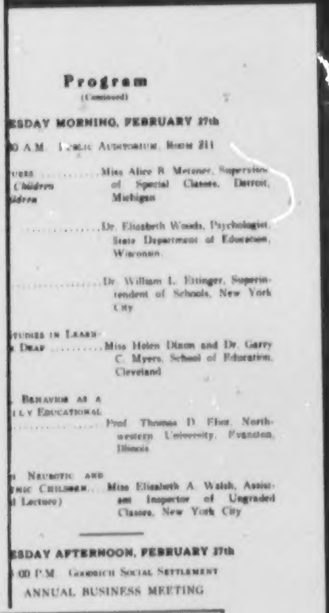
Miss Elise A. Seyfarth, State Department of Education, Wyoming

Miss Eleanor A. Gray, State Department of Education, New York

Dr. Elizabeth Woods, State Department of Public Instruction, Wisconsin

Dr. S. B. Sinclair, Department of Education, Ontario, Canada

rine G. Fecb, State Commis-
Mental Defectives, New



Program
(Continued)

ESDAY MORNING, FEBRUARY 27th

0 A.M. PUBLIC AUDITORIUM, Room 211

TURES ....Miss Alice B. Metzner, Supervisor of Special Classes, Detroit, Michigan
Children
ildren

..............Dr. Elizabeth Woods, Psychologist, State Department of Education, Wisconsin

..............Dr. William L. Ettinger, Superintendent of Schools, New York City

TUDIES IN LEARN-
DEAF ....Miss Helen Dixon and Dr. Garry C. Myers, School of Education, Cleveland

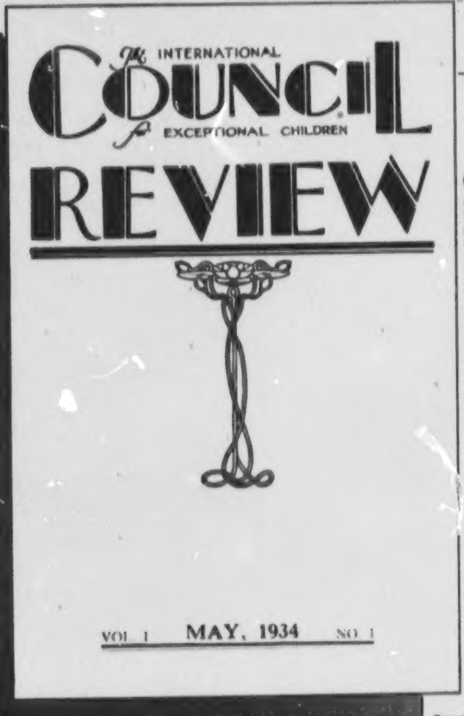
BEHAVIOR AS A
ILY EDUCATIONAL
..............Prof. Thomas D. Eliot, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois

NEUROTIC AND
PHIC CHILDREN....Miss Elizabeth A. Walsh, Assistant Inspector of Ungraded Classes, New York City
l Lecture)

ESDAY AFTERNOON, FEBRUARY 27th

3:00 P.M. GAMBRICH SOCIAL SETTLEMENT

ANNUAL BUSINESS MEETING



The INTERNATIONAL
COUNCIL
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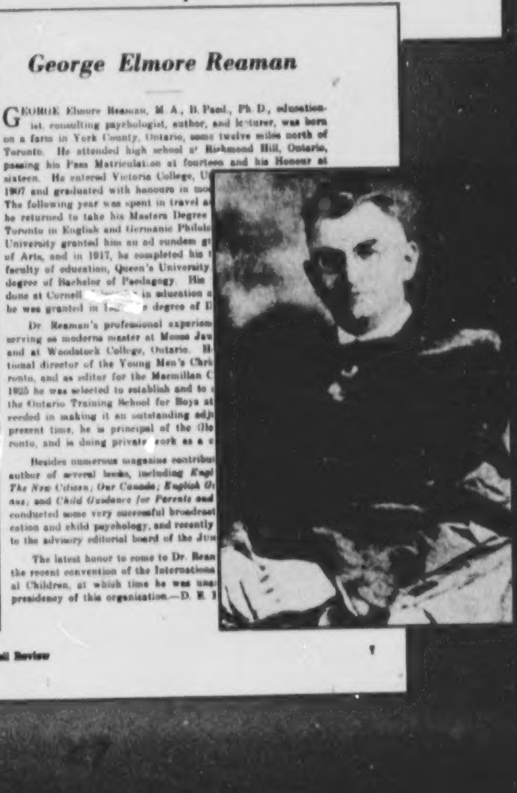
REVIEW

VOL. I MAY, 1934 NO. 1



George Elmore Reaman

GEORGE Elmore Reaman, M. A., B. Paed., Ph. D., education-
ist, consulting psychologist, author, and lecturer, was born
on a farm in York County, Ontario, some twelve miles north of
Toronto. He attended high school at Richmond Hill, Ontario,
passing his Pass Matriculation at fourteen and his Honour at
sixteen. He entered Victoria College, U
1907 and graduated with honours in mo
The following year was spent in travel a
he returned to take his Masters Degree
Toronto in English and Germanic Philol
University granted him an ad eundem g
of Arts, and in 1917, he completed his
faculty of education, Queen's University
degree of Bachelor of Paedagogy. His
done at Cornell [illegible] in education a
he was granted in [illegible] degree of D

Dr. Reaman's professional experien
serving as moderns master at Moose Jav
and at Woodstock College, Ontario. H
tional director of the Young Men's Chri
ronto, and as editor for the Macmillan C
1925 he was selected to establish and to
the Ontario Training School for Boys at
ceeded in making it an outstanding adj
present time, he is principal of the Gle
ronto, and is doing private work as a c

Besides numerous magazine contribu
author of several books, including *Engl*
The New Citizen; *Our Canada*; *English G*
ans; and *Child Guidance for Parents* and
conducted some very successful broadcast
cation and child psychology, and recently
to the advisory editorial board of the Jou

The latest honor to come to Dr. Rean
the recent convention of the Internationa
al Children, at which time he was una
presidency of this organization.—D. E. 1

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Alfred Binet also ranked high on the list of pioneers. Leo Cain described Binet's work as "especially significant in that he applied the theory of developmental levels to the progress of retarded children."

Louis Terman, the translator of the Binet intelligence test into English and the primary researcher on the *Genetic Studies of Genius*, was described by T. Ernest Newland as having made a noteworthy contribution. "Not only did Terman provide us with impetus for study of the gifted, but he gave the field one of the only comprehensive longitudinal research studies that we can claim."

William Geer, as well as many others interviewed, ranked Alexander Graham Bell as an especially significant pioneer, while Frances Connor stated, "The more you read about the man, the more you find that he was interested in all areas of exceptionality." Connor also stated that even though Samuel Gridley Howe is often claimed by the general education community, "He was truly a pioneer in his work with deaf-blind youngsters and in his establishment of the Perkins Institute as well as other training schools throughout New England."

The four special education advocates of this century mentioned most often in our telephone survey were Elizabeth Farrell, the founder and first president of CEC, J. E. Wallace Wallin, Elise Martens, and Ray Graham, who in Jasper Harvey's words "was an untiring administrator producing a nationwide impact on programs for exceptional children."

Today's Pioneers

There are pioneers who are still pioneering. It was the overwhelming opinion of all of our Bicentennial spokespersons that the efforts of Samuel A. Kirk have had a major effect on many areas of special education.

Harry Baker, longtime contributor to The Council for Exceptional Children and writer of the first practitioner oriented textbook in special education, was named often as a pioneer author and psychologist.

William Cruickshank was selected over and over again as a significant pioneer and was described by one interviewee as an important person in the learning disabilities movement and an important policymaker who professionalized special education.

Frances Connor, for her contributions to teacher training and certification, and Maynard Reynolds and Francis Lord for their work as catalysts—"people who get things done in the field"—were often listed by those interviewed as especially significant pioneers.

The list of pioneers could go on and on and on. Those interviewed mentioned a number of special educators, psychologists, writers, classroom teachers, and attorneys as pioneers who made significant contributions to the field at large and to their personal lives as well. Romaine Mackie made special note of all of these significant people: "There were teachers, parents, school superintendents, even Kiwanis and Rotary Club members, who worked together consistently over the years to help handicapped children. In many ways the unsung heroes are the real pioneers as well."

Research

Research in the field of special education is a topic of controversy and conflict for the special educators who participated in the interviews.

No area generated so much comment, both positive and negative, as did the issue of credible research theories and models projects.

Frances Connor provided a positive perspective seeing the development of cooperative research programs as moving from the laboratory into the educational setting. She stated that research has given the special educator a hold on the etiology of mental retardation, and that the efficacy studies have made specialists and regular educators far more accountable. "It is even more important," she said, "that research has shown us that many children we called exceptional were those who could not be tolerated by classroom teachers."

Jack Birch expressed delight with the attention which The Council for Exceptional Children has paid to the reporting of research results. Yet he believes that in addition to the experimental control research model, credibility must be given to the clinical and the case study investigative modes. Birch emphasized, "It should be demanded that the researcher report results in terms of what the practitioner can use."

Oliver Kolstoe believes that by limiting research flexibility, the field is losing creative and curious people who would make valuable discoveries pertinent to their own interests.

> If I had been on the Wright Brothers' dissertation committee I would have said, "Forget it, it will never get off the ground!" And I think that it is significant that some valuable principles of operant conditioning resulted from B. F. Skinner's work with, of all things, pigeons. I am concerned that today there are few people who would give philosophical or financial support to someone who wanted to teach pigeons how to hit a bar with their beaks. We must not neglect to support ideas merely because they appear impractical on the surface.

James Gallagher, Harrie Selznick, Romaine Mackie and John Melcher voiced opinions which were characteristic of the entire group. Research in special education has been inconsistent and spotty and nearly every educator interviewed endorsed the position that research is an area in need of direction and substantial federal support.

Teacher Education

"Teacher education is an area of special education that over the years has improved greatly," observed Melcher. Specific advances in teacher education and technology have led to conflicting opinions regarding some of the more recent developments in this area. Stephen Lilly argued that competency based teacher education (CBTE) is a potentially negative as well as positive factor for teacher training programs. "CBTE has helped create an awareness of what people can do, but when it is overapplied the generation of endless objectives becomes counterproductive," he observed. Ignacy Goldberg concurred. He believes that although CBTE is a serious effort to improve teacher education, strict adherence to a series of objectives may be a step in the wrong direction.

Eugene Doll proffered the opinion that teachers are born and that the teacher educator needs to concentrate on the facilitation of the preservice teacher's creative potential. "But," he emphasized, "teacher education provides a sound technical background, with principles upon which the student can base his actions. The student then begins to implement these principles through a series of apprentice experiences. These classroom and clinic situations are the heart of teacher education."

Generally, it is teacher education that holds real promise for improvement in the field. As Jack Birch said, "Traditionally, teacher educators looked at what the good practitioner did, then attempted to instruct the preservice teacher to do the same thing. Today teacher educators are drawing from science, and building programs around theory. Now we are creating, not copying."

The Council for Exceptional Childern—A Milestone in Direction and Leadership

Interviewees shared Richard Labney's conclusion that, "The Council for Exceptional Children has done many good things over the years—almost too numerous to name. And one of its most significant contributions is that the Council has provided a setting for people to come together to share and to help one another."

William Cruickshank reported that ever since Elizabeth Farrell organized the Council in 1922, the list of past presidents has been a list of many of the greatest and most influential people in the field.

Ignacy Goldberg stated that CEC has been involved overtly or behind the scenes in every major special education milestone in America, and the Council has provided consistent unity for professionals for over 50 years.

Bluma Weiner contended that "CEC has practiced advocacy long before the concept was in vogue, and has employed a staff that has provided monumental national leadership in this area."

Issues and Needs—Those Crucial to the Field

Research of a more comprehensive nature, an interdisciplinary approach to related fields, a clear definition of the concept and the process of least restrictive alternatives, and mainstreaming were ranked by those interviewed as the most crucial issues in the field today.

Oliver Kolstoe emphasized, "We need to get educators involved in research programs rather than in research projects. This means that the federal government must find the funds to support research over a five to ten year period." Others commented that (a) doctoral dissertations often have implications only for local concerns or are essentially inadequate as research models; and (b) the efficacy studies in the area of special class placement must be continued on a more long term basis if mainstream education is to receive professional credibility.

The practice of labeling and classifying, currently under fire, is of great concern to the special education interviewees. Dunn explained, "We need to take the whole concept of least restrictive alternative and put meat on it. Some important questions need to be asked such as, What exactly does the terminology mean? What does it mean in terms of special services? How is the process accomplished in terms of the regular class?"

John Tenney was in agreement with Dunn when he suggested that, "Mainstreaming has been in existence in some form since 1930. There were early efforts to integrate children into regular programs at the Kellogg School in Michigan. Fifty years later we are still trying to make the concept work. As yet regular class teachers still have little perception of what exceptional children are like."

William Geer agreed that a professional definition of mainstreaming is crucial for the field today. "We should remember that not all children can be integrated successfully into the regular classrooms of the public schools. Special education personnel must be trained to work with regular teachers, principals, and supervisors to accomplish delivery of services on a cooperative basis."

The organization of special services in Northern Europe was cited, and the need in the United States for a more integrated approach to services among related disciplines was pointed out. Others proposed that the time is past due for the development of cooperative working relationships among the health professions and special education. Paul Voelker recalled the time when special education was a tiny and struggling group of professionals. "Those days were difficult ones but there was a certain beauty in everyone's very basic concern for children. As we grow we need to remind ourselves of that from time to time."

"A crucial need is that we in special education make specific those things that indeed are special about special education," stated Bluma Weiner. Ignacy Goldberg voiced the concern that "We desperately need a reflective period and that in addition to innovation, special educators should begin to crystallize their concepts for the next 200 years."

The Early Years: Prologue to Tomorrow

WILLARD ABRAHAM

Gallaudet, Braille—and Anne Bancroft. Anne who? Mel Brooks' wife and comic star of the television spoof, *Annie and the Hoods*, in an article on the history of special education?

One can approach the early years of special education in at least two ways—through dates, places, and the classic names of Gallaudet and company, or through its innate excitement and feeling.

That is where Anne Bancroft comes in, with the award winning portrayal of Anne Sullivan, Helen Keller's teacher. Her brawling scenes with the little girl, and the emotional moment of discovery are the stuff of which special education's young years were made.

A serious reading of those times brings out recurring themes of compassion, love, and frustration, from Itard and Seguin to Christy Brown's mother (remember the incredible story of *My Left Foot?*) to the teacher down the hall this afternoon trying to entice the first words or steps out of a multiply handicapped youngster.

Three Energetic Leaders

Even human feelings are not the whole story. Sheer physical and intellectual hard work round out the efforts of the greats in our field from then to now. It would be easy to summarize where we have been through a chronicle of dates and places, but the real saga of our work can perhaps be partially symbolized by three leaders, little known and seldom quoted.

Two of them were angry, fighting people, and one the inspiration for the journal you are now reading.

One Angry Woman

Dorothea Dix is often confused with the newspaper columnist some of us remember from childhood. But she was a retired teacher who took her anger out on Congress—in 1848. Mental illness was her major target, and the inhumane treatment of its victims brought this kind of tearful prose to Washington:

> More than 9,000 idiots, epileptics and insane in the United States, destitute of appropriate care and protection . . . bound with galling chains, bowed beneath fetters and heavy, iron balls attached to drag chains, lacerated with ropes, scourged by rods and terrified beneath storms of cruel blows, now subject to jibes and scorn and torturing tricks; now abandoned to the most outrageous violations.

One can almost see her, looking like Greer Garson in an old movie, *Blossoms in the Dust*, as that actress told off a legislature about the tragic imprint of illegitimacy on birth certificates, tossing out the line that "there are no illegitimate children, only illegitimate parents."

Women like these helped bring handicapped children out of the closet. They were pioneers in an era when few cared; but they did, with the earthy feeling that "it's better to light a candle than to rail at the darkness."

And One Man

There were men, too, many of them, but few as eager to go into battle as Samuel Gridley Howe. His arena was the underdog, and whether blind, feebleminded, insane, deaf, enslaved or oppressed made no difference to him. His diverse interests extended from organizing the Perkins School for the Blind to supporting poor people in Greece. However, he saved his angriest words for the time in 1857 when he took on the governor of Massachusetts who dared veto a $2,500 increase in funding for a state school for the retarded. "I now proceed to the matter of the School for Idiotic Children," he quietly began, and then he opened up.

> When there are so many perennial leaks from the Treasury to be stopped, it is passing strange that a great pother should be made over such a driblet as this appropriation . . . The Veto is a great State engine, and, when an enormous breach is made, which threatens to swamp the Treasury, then it may properly be brought out, like a great steam pump. To do this may be sublime, at least in sound; but to ring the alarm bell, and get up steam merely to stop such a leak as three dollars and a quarter a week for supporting and educating fifteen idiotic children,—that borders rather on the ridiculous.

Yes, the legislature overrode the governor.

ICEC's First President

Elizabeth Farrell, a supervisor of ungraded classes in New York City, did not need sarcasm to give life to her dream. All she required was a small platform, two college classes in the hot summer of 1922 at Teachers College, Columbia. From them evolved The Council for Exceptional Children, then with the word "International" preceding its title (ICEC).

As ICEC's first president, and at its first annual meeting in Cleveland (February 26-27, 1922), Farrell addressed herself to the needs of this embryonic organization and to the children it would serve. She was specific, including the "gifted, dull and defective, deaf, blind, feebleminded, tubercular, undernourished, cardiac, idiot, dull normal and anti-social."

Elizabeth Farrell and her first ungraded class, April, 1903.

Her closing remarks paved the way for the attitudes toward exceptional children on which most of us now agree. In referring to ICEC's members, she said:

> Because of their efforts public education in this country will become less machine-made and more individual . . . bring the opportunity of successful achievement to every child. In doing this it will make of the weakest of our brothers a useful unit in the social fabric. It will return to the community human wealth now beyond our power to reckon.

Dix's challenge to a legislature, Howe's to his governor, and Farrell's to the whole educational community were a prelude to today's parent lobbies, as well as to teachers, state department people, and university facilities dissatisfied with the fact that exceptional children are still too often undiscovered, ignored, or poorly taught.

European Beginnings

It was Itard, of course, who established an earlier pattern which demonstrated that appropriate training pays off even with the seriously handicapped. His tarnished hope for Victor, "the wild boy of Aveyron," and his bitter disappointment in him, has been replicated by thousands of special education teachers in the intervening generations. Who has not at times experienced frustrations and expressed them in thoughts like these: "Since my pains are lost and my efforts fruitless, take yourself back to your forests and primitive tastes; or if your new wants make you dependent on society, suffer the penalty of being useless."

He and his protegé, Edouard Seguin, and the woman who then learned from him, Maria Montessori, are forerunners of the current trend to mainstream children. Their legacy is the child many of us fight against labeling despite legislative funding that limits our cross categorical efforts.

We have been battling other legacies too—for example, the rejection, isolation, punishment, and asylum concepts of the Middle Ages and the negative connotation of words like feebleminded, dumb, and idiot. Then it was someone else's child, not the youngster who these days statistically permeates the home of every pair of grandparents in the country.

Thomas Hopkins Gallaudet went to Paris in 1817 and learned much about working with deaf children from a young priest. He set up his school in Hartford, Connecticut—the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb. If the terminology bothers you, try to keep in mind that he did not have the backlog of experience now available. He was a pioneer with few precedents.

Residential units were the format in the early 1800's, with institutional settings for the deaf, blind, and retarded. However, before the century ended, state financing and public day school placement resulted from a slow, gradual humanizing of attitudes toward both children and the handicapped of all ages. Even the most delayed programs for exceptional children—those for the gifted—saw innovative starts in Elizabeth, New Jersey (an accelerated, multiple track system, 1886), and Cambridge (six grades in four years, 1891).

By 1899, 100 large cities had special education classes, and Lloyd Dunn has said "here is where teaching and sorting began." School and community responsibility extended to "truants" as well as to physical and intellectual deviations. Among the pioneering localities were Boston, Chicago, New York, Cleveland, Providence, Detroit and Milwaukee.

After Adolescence

Special education, first approached as an exercise in charity, began to mature. Alexander Graham Bell addressed the National Education Association convention as a speech expert in 1898 and pointed out that handicapped children had a right to an education through the public schools. A man named August Schenck did it earlier in Detroit (1878), according to Francis Lord in his study of day school placement. The isolation in institutions led to another kind of isolation, public school classes in basements, down dark halls or way out somewhere in back of the main school building.

The new century brought public awareness in general, and parent pressures specifically. By the 1920's, two thirds of the large cities had special classes, and although they were set up on a permissive basis, to thousands of families they were "mandatory" or the school boards and school administrators would hear about it! Nor did they want their youngsters to be hidden away; as early as 1913, the visually handicapped were beginning to be cooperatively taught by specialists and regular classroom teachers.

Mandatory legislation is not new. Francis Lord checked it out, and the dates he found were 1911, 1917, and 1920, in New Jersey, New York, and Massachusetts, respectively (although it did not reach Arizona until this year!) Not until the early 1930's did concern for the handicapped make an impression at the federal level. The White House Conference on Children and Youth began in 1909 to take stock of children's needs, but it was not until 1930 when an extensive report on special education, incidence figures and a "Children's Charter" attacked the national conscience. By that time ICEC was eight years old. And it was one more year until the US Office of Education had its first bureau employee involved with handicapped children.

Public involvement came slowly, however. In 1935 Harry Baker did a survey of 200 school superintendents, and few even replied. Cleveland began its Major Work Classes for the gifted in the early 1920's, and almost nobody seemed to notice. Ignorance continued to associate cerebral palsy with mental retardation, "mongolism" with families, and epilepsy with restrictive laws. Mental illness and deficiency were confused in people's minds. And PKU, retrolental fibroplasia, and rubella were not bothersome enough yet to medical or educational personnel to rate definitions or solutions. We knew about the Juke and the Kallikak families, and made a lot of strange assumptions regarding inherited familial problems.

Still, we had traveled a long way from the court fools and jesters when the crippled and mentally retarded were laughed at. But the road ahead was long and tortuous. The special education leaders of the momentous, exciting, recent past can tell you how tough it has been. Harley Wooden fought the economic battles of CEC, and William Geer picked them up, adding legislative and growth trauma to the burden. Samuel Laycock pioneered for the gifted in western Canada, and had dozens of comrades in this country, including Leta Hollingworth, L. M. Terman, and Paul Witty.

The Bureau of Education for the Handicapped evolved in 1967, and here we can thank Sam Kirk—but there is so much to be grateful to him for, like the recognition that early educational programs pay off and the ability to identify the "learning disability" concept. John Kennedy's short term helped bring the country's resources together for the handicapped, set up the President's Committee on Mental Retardation, and led to Public Law 88-164 with funding for training professional personnel in the field. "The manner in which our nation cares for its citizens and conserves its manpower resources," he said, "is more than an index to its concern for the less fortunate. It is a key to its future."

Into the Crystal Ball

That future is what we are looking toward right now. It has many tentacles stretching out from our vibrant past. Here are ten of the more exciting ones on which we are already started and in which we can no doubt anticipate action and fireworks in the years ahead:

- Our concerns for children now extend into infancy, the preschool years, and even the prenatal period. The studies of Merle Karnes and Rick Heber are just two of many symbols of this vital trend based on early diagnosis, identification, programing and parent education.

- Advocacy, children's rights, parent lobbying and the courts will continue to set and keep schools, communities, and legislatures on the right track. The Skelly Wright and Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children decisions were only the beginning, now joined by lawsuits in most of the states.
- We will not let regular classroom teachers and school administrators off the hook. They are in all this with us, and cannot give only lip service to "individual differences," "take the child where he (she) is," and other clichés we have lived with too long.
- Language and attitudes in this field are becoming less label-oriented, less medical, less hopeless, with the accent more on a descriptive analysis of child deficits and assets.
- "Exclusion" as a concept is on its way out, whether we are talking about children who speak a "different" language, represent a "different" culture, or come from a poverty family, or those who are severely or multiply handicapped. Every school day of "the six hour retarded child" consists of time that is precious and irretrievable.
- Because we are eternally hopeful we will continue to seek panaceas, and welcome the future pioneers who experiment with them, regardless of their way-out qualities. New thoughts on diet, brain wave testing, and unusual therapies will get a hearing. After all, that is the broad arena from which Edgar Doll, Ray Graham, Georgie Lee Abel, Alfred Strauss and other recent greats came, although their professional emphases were obviously different.
- The limited gifted child approach of the 1920's and 1950's was just the tip of the iceberg we are beginning to develop. We will not reach the wild extremes of John Hersey's *The Child Buyer*, but the neglect of our rich talents and intellects will be reduced—despite the excuse of other priorities.
- New methods and approaches as they pertain to exceptional children will mature. Special Education will lead the way—again!—in areas like prescriptive and precision teaching and career education.
- We will continue to agonize over labeling, funding sources and professional standards, but with our current leaders, they too will be refined. After all, what profession can match the creative ideas of a Leo Cain, Maynard Reynolds, James Gallagher, Francis Lord, and the hundreds of others you will hear and meet at the next CEC convention? We are in good hands.
- The media will continue to help us inform and persuade the public, through films like *The Miracle Worker*, *Light in the Piazza* and *Charly*, and books by others with the warmth of Pearl Buck.

Gallaudet, Braille, and Itard were starters, but the young people coming along in teacher preparation programs today are setting a pace for knowledge, experimentation, and feeling that eclipse early contributors. They capitalize on the past, but do not permit it to limit their search for how to meet the needs of each child they teach, no matter how tough the task of walking, communicating, hearing, visualizing, thinking, adjusting and learning may be.

AMERICAN REVOLUTION BICENTENNIAL 1776-1976 ®

Great Moments in the History of The Council for Exceptional Children

F. E. LORD

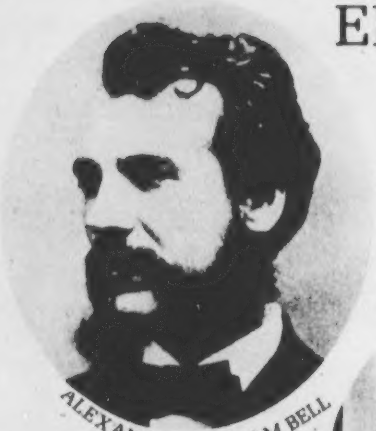
Each of the more than five decades of Council history has been marked with great moments—great decisions—and a history of The Council for Exceptional Children soon to be published will detail these interesting events. This brief Bicentennial article will describe a few significant events or decisions of the Council in its half-century of history. These events have made the Council the largest and the most effective association working on behalf of exceptional children in the world.

Night of August 10, 1922

The Council's birth was the first great event in its life. This organization, which has grown from 12 charter members to nearly 70,000, has filled a need in the eyes and hearts of professionals who are interested in the welfare of exceptional children.

The "birth" occurred on the night of August 10, 1922, in a downtown hotel in New York City. The "delivery" was well handled by Elizabeth Farrell, a summer school instructor at Columbia University and the supervisor of ungraded classes in New York City. After some discussion, the decision was made to establish a new organization to work for the improvement of the education of exceptional children—soon to be known as the International Council for the Education of Exceptional Children. Those 12 witnesses to the "birth" became the organization's charter members. The Council's history will supply the names and positions of the leaders who saw the need for a united front to advance the cause they believed in.

PIONEERS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION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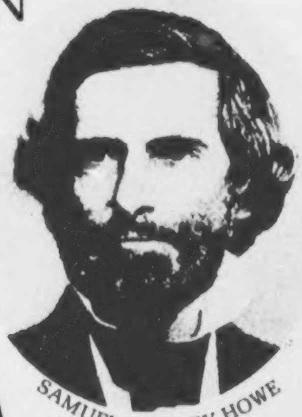
SAMUEL GRIDLEY HOWE

LEWIS M. TERMAN

J. E. WALLACE WALLIN

ELISE MARTINS

HARLEY Z WOODEN

RAY GRAHAM

SAMUEL A. KIRK

Establishment of Means of Communication

Elizabeth Farrell, the first president, and other members as well, from the beginning stressed the value and importance of communication among professionals. Perhaps the isolation which special education imposes upon many teachers creates a unique need for them to know what others of like interests are believing and doing as they face daily challenges with atypical children. So President Farrell, at her own expense, had some of the proceedings of the early annual meetings published and distributed. Also, the *Newsletter* carried information to the chapters for three or four years beginning in 1928. *Ungraded*, a publication for teachers of retarded children edited by Miss Farrell, also carried Council news at one time.

Finally, in 1934 the Executive Committee of the Council entered into an agreement with Harley Wooden to publish a journal which was first called the *International Council for Exceptional Children Review*, later, the *Journal of Exceptional Children*, and now *Exceptional Children*. It was not until 1944 that the Council purchased the *Journal* and took over publication rights. For over 30 years it has been the Council's official organ and has brought to thousands of its members information of professional significance, along with inspiration to improve the education of exceptional children.

Commitment to International Interests

Since the night the Council was organized over a half-century ago, it has been international in interests and activities. The founders included Canadians and others who resided outside the United States and who urged that the organization be international in focus. Today Canadians are among the most enthusiastic members. Three presidents have come from Canada (Edith L. Groves, G. Elmore Reaman, and Florence Dunlop), and on three occasions the annual convention was held across the border (Toronto, 1934; Ottawa, 1947; Toronto, 1966). The education of exceptional children is a worldwide interest, and the international commitment of the Council is a reflection of this concern.

The Local Chapter

The local chapter has been the effective unit of organization since the first days of the Council. Today over 900 chapters provide the democratic base for the Council structure. The chapter brings friends and associates together to discuss problems, and new members identify quickly with the organization. The bonds among members develop relationships which add solidarity to the Council. For years chapter representatives have participated in the review and formulation of national policies through the annual delegate assembly. The early decision to establish local chapters has resulted in a strong grassroots foundation for the Council.

Establishing a National Office in Washington

For nearly three decades the Council operated without a headquarters in the usual sense. The *Journal* editors provided their own offices, and the membership secretary (business manager) used her home as an office. If you were told that for several years the "home office" was in Saranac, Michigan, you would of course ask, "But where is Saranac?" A diligent search of the map of the state would take you to a village near Grand Rapids. For over 12 years (1938–1950) Beulah Adgate served the Council as business manager and, at times, as secretary. Membership files, collection of dues, and distribution of journals were all handled from her home.

By 1950 the Council had grown to approximately 6,000 members, and the desire to establish the headquarters in Washington was finally realized. The move was made easier due to the fact that the Council had become a department of the National Education Association (NEA) in 1941. NEA had sponsored its own department of special education for a number of years prior to the merger. The establishment of *the Council's headquarters in Washington* brought many tangible benefits as well as increased national visibility.

Wooden Goes to Washington

When the headquarters was established in Washington, Harley Z Wooden was appointed the Executive Secretary and he provided unusually effective leadership during this transition. Wooden had been the editor of the *Journal of Exceptional Children* for nearly ten years and was the Council's president in 1947-1948. He was a fortunate choice for the first administrative officer in a national headquarters since he had the confidence and respect of the NEA staff with whom he worked.

Well Qualified Teachers as a Goal

From its beginning the Council has been interested in the professional growth of teachers as a means of improving the services to exceptional children. This interest has provided a common focus for members at all levels of professional activity. In the early years of the Council President Farrell stressed this goal repeatedly, and the Council provided funds from its limited budget to publish a national survey of teacher education. The Council has on two occasions published suggested standards for training professional personnel. Problems of teacher preparation have been discussed at most annual meetings—usually in special section meetings. The Council has cooperated with the US Office of Education in its project relating to teacher preparation, most notably the study of teacher competencies in 1960 and the implementation of recent federal legislation. For example, a past president and long time member of the Council, Samuel A. Kirk, was called upon in 1963 by the late John F. Kennedy to direct the newly created Division of Handicapped Children in the Office of Education which has concentrated upon support of research projects and training of professional personnel.

Student Participation

The Council is interested in college students who are committed to extending the services for exceptional children. In fact, it was summer school students who originally organized the Council. In recent years there has been an ever increasing number of college students participating in all phases of Council life—especially through chapters on college and university campuses. In 1963 the students adopted their own constitution and provided for national officers and a board of governors. In 1966, the CEC Delegate Assembly approved the Student Council for Exceptional Children Constitution and Bylaws. In 1975 over 22,000 students were members of the Council. The Council's efforts to involve students in its activities have helped to develop leadership which will be essential to the Council in years to come.

Reflections

Three people who were instrumental in providing the Council with great moments were Dr. Harry Baker, Anna M. Engel, and Dr. Christine P. Ingram.

Dr. Baker served as president of the Council from 1935 to 1937. He was Director of the Psychological Clinic of the Detroit Public Schools for 40 years. He is well known for his publications, including the Detroit Learning Aptitude Test, which was published in 1935 and continues to be widely used today. Our senior past president, now living in Laguna Hills, California, recollects . . .

> *In 1909 my first major contact with any handicapped individual consisted of oral reading to a blind male student at Oberlin College. As principal of a consolidated country school in West Farmington, Ohio, in 1916, I observed the unusual features of a pupil now known to have been mongoloid. My first professional introduction to special education was in 1919 in the survey course of Dr. Charles Scott Berry at the University of Michigan.*

Miss Engel is one of the most respected and loved members of the Council. She currently resides in Aiken, South Carolina. Miss Engel spent her professional career in Detroit as a teacher, supervisor, and administrator of special education. She contributed her talents to the Council at the local and national levels. She attended its first annual convention and, until her recent retirement, practically every succeeding convention. There were some light moments at conventions, as Miss Engel recalls . . .

> *The 1926 annual meeting was held in Washington D.C. We procured rooms through NEA which were college classrooms. When we arrived, the rooms were locked and one of our members had to climb through a window to open the door.*

Dr. Ingram was the Director of Special Education in the Public Schools of Rochester, New York, for many years. She later served as an instructor at Illinois State University. Her text, *Education of the Slow Learner* which was published in 1935, was a widely used publication. Dr. Ingram resides in Rochester, New York. She has recollections of a struggling young Council striving to continue its existence . . .

> *In 1934 the Board of Education did not allow the teachers to take time off for conventions. In fact, my supervisor did not even allow me to release a news report of the meeting in our local paper since she was fearful of publicity!*

"Membership Psychology"

Only a few great moments have been reviewed here. The decisions which led to these events were critical in the life of the Council. The Council's vitality and motives are reflected in these events—which, in turn, account for its increasing strength. The activities of the local chapters and the deliberations of the democratic delegate assembly have provided a "membership psychology" which is unique in international organizations. Over 50 years of vital Council history have now passed as we celebrate our national Bicentennial, and every indication points to even greater vitality in future decades.

Parent Groups: Their Role in a Better Life for the Handicapped

LEO F. CAIN

Volunteer groups for self help purposes have been a part of our nation's history since colonialization. They have, of course, had varying purposes, structures, and memberships. In the 1930's, the focus was health and welfare, and the organizational motivation came from professionals in the field of medicine. Following the Second World War, groups were organized for the welfare of the handicapped and mentally retarded, not only in the United States but also in a number of other countries. These groups were distinguished by the fact that they were organized by parents, and their memberships, although not totally restricted to parents, were primarily composed of parents of children with handicapps.

More than Volunteers

The personal involvement of the parents with the particular problems for which the association was organized resulted in a special type of dedication not found in many other volunteer groups. Parents participated in the organizations and volunteered time in the projects carried on by those groups, not from some altruist basis, but because of a deep felt concern and commitment. This dedication had mixed benefits, but it was the reason for their persistence and success in seeking solutions for their problems.

The existence of some local parents groups can be traced back before the early 1930's—the National Society for Crippled Children dates to 1921. However, the major thrust of the movement came in the 1940's and 1950's with the organization of national groups such as the National Association for Retarded Children and United Cerebral Palsy Association. The rapidity of the growth of these organizations and the effectiveness of their demands for social and educational change is testimony to the legitimacy of their need, the intensity of their involvement, and the dynamic quality of their leadership.

Handicaps are not necessarily related to the social status of the family, educational attainment, intelligence, economic influence, or environmental setting. They respect no one and, because of this, handicapped children came from homes representing the complete panorama of American life. The result was a pool of concerned parents possessing the qualities needed for the effective mobilization of effort on the behalf of their children.

They Organize

Informally

Local groups first developed informally, as gatherings of individuals sharing a common problem. Their reason for coming together was to help their children and to help themselves by providing each other mutual psychological support to cope with internal family needs as well as external social pressures. Their concerns first centered about their immediate needs. There were too few institutions for the care of the handicapped, and all types of handicapped individuals were placed together with little or no diagnosis or training provided. In addition, many of these facilities were greatly in need of improvement. Public education did not accept as its responsibility the provision of programs for children with limited capabilities, either mental or physical. The public in general, and legislators in particular, were greatly uninformed about the possibilities for helping this population and were totally unaware of the advances being made in knowledge and techniques on their behalf. Interest in developing methods to help children achieve according to the level of their capabilities was minimal. The concepts of social responsibility and, concomitantly, the appropriateness of allocating public funds for this purpose were just beginning to develop.

Formally

These concerns led the parent groups to organize formally for the purpose of sponsoring a wide diversity of activities. Foremost, of course, was their action in the field of education. Initially, parent groups conducted educational programs through private schools. The assumption was that these educational programs were projects to demonstrate the educational potential for the public segment. Their next step was to sponsor legislation to make programs in special education a function of public school systems; this led to the establishment of teacher training programs and credentials for specialists. Sheltered workshops, vocational training centers, diagnostic facilities, parent education services, preschool and postschool facilities, guardianship plans, short-stay facilities (respite homes), community centers, recreation, research, speech therapy, professional training, and medical services were all types of projects undertaken.

Specializing

As parent groups organized formally, they organized according to specific types of handicaps. The need of the parents for support from others who understood and the discrete problems of each handicap prompted this. There were, for example, individual organizations for the mentally retarded, the cerebral palsied, the deaf, and the blind. And, as a result, when each organization developed a project, it was directed toward the specific need of that particular handicap. At times, categorization, which has been intensified by parental involvement, resulted in duplication of effort and fragmentation of programs and services. Even when more than one handicap needed a service, each organization developed its own. For example, vocational rehabilitation was originally developed for the physically handicapped only; individual legislation was sponsored to establish a credential for each specialty. On the other hand, the multiply handicapped were often left out, having no service available to them. Because of the benefits to the individual organization in the areas of fund raising, legislation, and public information campaigns, they have been reluctant to cooperate and broaden their scope of activities.

The Parent/ Professional Relationship

In the early history of parent associations, conflict existed between the parents and the professionals. Having had some negative experiences with professionals, particularly in the field of education but also in other support services, parents lacked confidence in them and were hesitant to utilize this resource. At times, a relationship which was almost adversary in nature was observable. However, as the membership grew and the volume of activities and services rendered by parent groups increased, the need for professional assistance overcame their objections. Skills in fund raising, public relations, medicine, social work, psychology, and teaching were all needed and could be provided by professionals. In addition, the professional contributed permanency and continuity to the activities of the group. Parents, however, jealously guarded their prerogatives within the organization and maintained control of the decision making process, while recognizing the contributions of the professionals in policy development. The professional was thus primarily an advisor or consultant. Attitudes are now more positive and many parent groups sponsor scholarships to train professionals and fund professional research projects.

The structures adopted by most parent associations were designed to unite and mobilize resources on a national level for appropriate purposes, such as fund raising, federal legislation, and public information. Yet, flexibility to develop state programs and provide projects which reflected local needs was demanded. This conflict between local autonomy and the strength of the national organization does not seem to have been a hinderance. Parents were effective at both levels. They succeeded in obtaining resources through federal legislation and in implementing programs through state legislation.

They Get Action

Parent groups can be credited with significant advances. Openly using their power as voters and as pressure groups, they have been able to get action and change within the bureaucratic system. Key factors in this achievement have been public information campaigns using the press, the media, special programs, seminars, and conferences, as well as personal contacts between influential parents and key legislators. State and federal offices were established to monitor bills in progress and to assist in drafting legislation. Parent groups brought the needs of the handicapped to the attention of those at the highest level of government. Parent groups were instrumental in the establishment of presidential advisory committees such as the President's Committee on Mental Retardation and the President's Committee on Employment of the Handicapped, with parents themselves being named as members.

For Equal Rights

Recent history reflects an emphasis on advocacy, or the demand for equal rights, and parents and parent groups have actively promoted the rights of the handicapped. Discriminatory practices are being challenged in the courts. Judicial redress is being sought for statutes depriving the handicapped of the right to vote, to own property, to bear children, to speak for themselves, to obtain occupational licenses, or to be eligible for insurance, or excluding them from services. The nature of the permanent impact of court decisions, although at first thought to be landmarks for the benefit of the handicapped, will be determined in the future. Many of these cases are under further litigation, but at this time it can be stated with assurance that constitutional issues are being addressed at a new level of seriousness. The number of lawsuits relating to education has significantly increased. Suits are being filed which seek to eliminate the exclusion of the handicapped from equal access to educational opportunity and the stigma created by labeling children. As appropriate legislation is enacted at the state level, these suits will undoubtedly diminish. All this has been done with parent group support.

And, parent groups are also actively involved in legislation which reflects a new concern for the rights of the handicapped. Here again the right to education, the right to due process protection, and the right to adequate funding are the focal points of concern. Legislation being introduced covers such topics as the trend toward normalization in educational placement and training regular classroom personnel in the needs of the handicapped. Federal legislation is now speaking to nondiscrimination in employment in any program receiving federal financial assistance and the removal of architectural barriers. A significant amount of funding to initiate, expand, and improve educational programs for the handicapped is also being provided by the federal government.

Future Issues

Working Together

As parent groups move into the future, certain issues, although not new, must be dealt with. One is the issue of coordination versus isolation—should associations work together or alone? The case for broadening objectives seems most persuasive. Individual associations need not be abandoned; but where needs are in common, cooperation could contribute greatly to the level of services provided and the number of individuals receiving benefits. In the beginning, programs were obtained on the humane appeal of the specific handicap. At this point in development, however, a broader approach would be to the best interest of all. There is still need to strengthen cooperation not only among the several parent groups themselves, but also among public and private agencies concerned with education, social work, employment, and rehabilitation. Fragmentation of services reduces responsibility and accountability.

For All Citizens

A trend can be seen among parent groups to extend their perspectives beyond the immediate needs of children and to be concerned about services for the entire life span of the individual. This is reflected in their support of programs providing living arrangements, employment opportunities either in the community or in workshops, and leisure and recreational opportunities. At least one organization has recognized this and changed its name—the National Association for Retarded Children has changed its name to the National Association for Retarded Citizens.

Help in Delivery

And, as parent groups broaden their perspectives, they must also re-evaluate the advisability of providing services in contrast to obtaining them. It seems to be readily accepted that parent groups, as private bodies, can more easily assume the role of experimenter than can bureaucratic, public agencies. Therefore, it follows that new approaches, new techniques, and new services might continue to be developed on a pilot basis by parent groups. Once effective, worthwhile projects are demonstrated, however, it is the public agency which can better finance and deliver the service on the long term basis. The parent groups are thus free to move on to a new experiment, to monitor the effectiveness of programs operated by public agencies to insure that they continue to meet the needs of the clientele, to be involved in the setting of standards or criteria against which programs can be evaluated, or to sponsor preventive research. It is inefficient and costly to duplicate services and programs offered by public agencies.

Mainstreaming

Parent groups have also supported the general concept now being advocated by special educators of moving as many handicapped children as possible back into the regular classroom. This is variously termed normalization, or mainstreaming. Undoubtedly, the segregation of all handicapped children had stigmatizing effect on some, and both the "normal" child and the handicapped child benefit from educational settings which as nearly as possible reflect the social environment. Many parents have realized that mainstreaming places new demands on teacher training, in that all classroom teachers must be prepared to meet the special needs of the handicapped. Appropriate resource materials must be located in convenient, adjacent locations in order to supplement regular classroom materials; educational objectives must be set which are realistic for the child and against which he will be evaluated. Parents have been concerned that not every child can benefit educationally from the regular classroom and that special programs and services must be maintained if every handicapped child is to be served.

A Significant Force

The purpose here has been to show that parent groups have been a significant factor in improving the lot of the handicapped. Like most movements, the parent movement began in a small way, in communities all over the country. Through dedication and effort it evolved into a significant force at national, state, and local levels.

- As they began, they stepped in and provided services, particularly to children, which were ignored by health, education, and welfare agencies. They established special schools, encouraged better health services, and actively worked for upgrading of state institutions housing the handicapped.

- They recognized the need for legislation at the state level to insure improved services and were influential in the enactment of statutes which required schools to provide special education programs and other services such as diagnostic classes, speech pathology, physical and occupational therapy.
- On the national level, they successfully obtained legislation providing funds for research grants, training grants, grants for demonstration programs, and federal aid to the states.
- They have been advocates of the rights of handicapped through sponsoring legislation and in the judicial process.
- They have been concerned about the entire life of the handicapped person and broadened their perspective.
- Their goal is to make available the needed services to every handicapped individual.
- They are becoming aware of the benefits to be accrued from coordination of efforts among parent groups.

Has the success of parent groups negated their need in the future? It is true that much headway has been made. Many of the needs found thirty years ago have at least been partially fulfilled, but these steps have not been equally achieved in all states across the nation. Many handicapped children and adults still go unserved and the present services need to be expanded to reach more people. Goals need continual reevaluation in order to reflect the changes in society and this requires some flexibility within the associations. Their existence is still needed and parent groups can continue to be highly effective.

AMERICAN REVOLUTION BICENTENNIAL 1776-1976

Special Education Research: Retrospect and Prospect

HERBERT J. PREHM

The history of special education and the history of special education research are virtually the same. Special education grew from the need to find effective methods of teaching children who were handicapped. Even as the first education programs for the handicapped were essentially uncontrolled experiments, the education of handicapped children has been and continues to be an experiment.

As part of the CEC bicentennial series, the present article has several purposes. One purpose is to review, briefly, some of the significant milestones in special education research. A second purpose is to identify promising areas for future special education research. A third purpose is to identify problems which continue to influence the progress of special education research. A final purpose is the presentation of a perspective regarding research and the education of exceptional children.

The primary focus of the article will be on the 20th century. We need only be reminded that the early efforts of pioneers such as Itard, Seguin, Howe, Montessori, and Gallaudet (well documented in other articles in this series) broke new ground in experimentation as well as in program development. The efforts of these early program developers grew out of their curiosity about effective ways of teaching children with handicaps. While scientifically uncontrolled, these early efforts were genuine attempts to answer questions.

A Perspective

Before documenting some of the significant milestones in the history of special education research, a review of some basic aspects of the research enterprise will serve as a basis for understanding the past and current role of research in shaping current and future special education practice.

The Character of Research

Research is an intellectual enterprise, a process whereby objective answers are obtained for specific questions. The overall objective of research is the identification of unequivocal relationships between variables, and through repeated demonstrations of these unequivocal relationships, a research finding achieves the status of a fact. Through the application of the research process, the researcher attempts to understand and explain relationships between variables. The emphasis on answering questions and on understanding relationships makes research intellectual in character.

Research, development, and evaluation are distinctly different activities, although they are frequently mistaken for each other. Research, as it has just been defined, provides the knowledge base upon which useful educational products can be developed. Development is the construction of devices or products that can be used to achieve an educational purpose. A current example of development is the *Social Learning Curriculum* (Goldstein, 1974) developed by Herbert Goldstein and his associates at Yeshiva University. Evaluation "is the process of delineating, obtaining, and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives" (Stufflebeam, Foley, Gephart, Guba, Hammond, Merriman, & Provus, 1971, p. 40). The process of evaluation permits a rational decision between alternative educational products or procedures. Neither development nor evaluation seeks to understand a behavioral phenomenon; neither evaluation nor development should be confused with research.

As the researcher attempts to understand the nature of relationships between variables about which he is curious, he works to control other variables which could obfuscate the relationship of interest. The control exerted over potential confounding variables often takes the special education researcher away from the classroom setting. Since it is frequently impossible to control all relevant variables in the classroom setting, the researcher steps back to a setting—the laboratory—wherein he or she can exert more effective control of variables. Increased control allows the researcher to identify unequivocal relationships between variables. These unequivocal relationships then become the bases for both development and applied classroom research. Good applied research relies on laboratory based knowledge.

Multidisciplinary Contribution to Special Education Research

Research germane to the education of exceptional children comes from many disciplines. As an applied profession, special education practice is influenced by research conducted in a variety of fields. For example, medical research has reduced the numbers of children in danger of blindness because of a condition known as retrolental fibroplasia. Medical research has also discovered methods for treating some disorders, e.g. phenylketonuria, and has provided a means for early identification of a variety of congenital disorders through the technique of amniocentesis. Such medical advances influence special education by changing the character of the population with which the special educator deals.

Psychology has contributed advances in testing and psychometrics, to mention but two. The development of specialized test instruments such as the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (Kirk, McCarthy, & Kirk, 1968) has led to the development of specialized instructional programs and techniques. Basic learning research with pigeons established the basis for the systematic application of learning principles to the management of disturbing behavior and to the development of systematic teaching programs for the severely and profoundly handicapped.

Sociological research has led to a clearer understanding of the social forces impinging on the handicapped, their families, and the school programs serving them. Because special education practice is so dependent upon research from a variety of disciplines, the demarcation of a particular type of research as "special education research" is indeed arbitrary. The fact that special education is a consumer of research produced by a variety of scientific disciplines is healthy for special education as a field.

Significant Milestones

It should be noted that any attempt to define significant milestones in any area of research will overlook some significant topics and/or researchers. This is particularly true in an area like special education, which relies so heavily on research from a variety of disciplines. Considering that special education has been and continues to be an experiment, it is surprising that special education research has been focused on essentially the same topics during its entire history. It has seemed to revolve primarily around the development of more efficient and more effective methods for identifying and evaluating exceptional children, the characteristics of exceptional children, the development of teaching materials and techniques, and the evaluation of alternative educational service delivery systems.

Although special education has been experimental since its beginnings, special education research is still in its infancy. Since 1900 the education of handicapped children has grown dramatically, and with it, the quantity of special education research. It is only within the past 20 years, however, that special education research has flourished. The recency of the greatest amount of special education research makes the field a young one.

Pioneering Research Contributions

The list of pioneering research contributions is a long one. There are several persons whose efforts may serve as significant models.

Lewis M. Terman is well known for his efforts to adapt the Binet-Simon scales of intellectual development to the American population. His efforts in this regard have provided a major tool for the identification and evaluation of children with deviant intellectual development. However, Terman's interest in the evaluation of intellectual development is but one of his contributions to special education. Terman's most significant contribution to special education research is his longitudinal study of the development of intellectually gifted persons (Terman, Baldwin, & Bronson, 1925; Terman & Oden, 1959). Through this research Terman and his colleagues have provided not only important information about the gifted, but a model of effective inquiry as well. The *Genetic Studies of Genius* remains the most comprehensive compendium of knowledge about the characteristics of the gifted.

Harold M. Skeels is a second researcher who has made significant contributions to special education research. Skeels is primarily known for his research investigating the relationship between environmental deprivation and intellectual development. Skeels' (1941) description of his attempt to stimulate intellectual development in children with low IQ's and his subsequent report (1966) of the long term effects of that stimulation have served as a springboard for a significant number of attempts to prevent mental retardation through environmental enrichment of high risk preschool age children.

Warren Baller is a third researcher who has made a long lasting contribution to special education research. Baller and his colleagues conducted the only long term study of the development of mentally retarded persons (Baller, 1936; Baller, Charles, & Miller, 1967; Charles, 1953; Miller, 1965). Their longitudinal study of the mentally retarded is a major contribution to knowledge about the changing characteristics and needs of the retarded.

A fourth 20th century pioneer was *Alfred Strauss*. Strauss conducted both research and program development. He was among the first to attempt to develop effective methods for identifying and teaching children with "brain injury." His research, like that of the other persons mentioned here, stimulated a large amount of subsequent research. Moreover, his research also stimulated much controversy, and although significant changes have been made in the teaching methods advocated by Strauss, his influence is still felt today.

A final trend setter must be mentioned. Professor *Samuel A. Kirk* must be included as a true pioneer in special education research. Under his leadership the Institute for Research on Exceptional Children at the University of Illinois became a significant center for special education research. Researchers affiliated with the center during the 1950's and 1960's conducted important special education research across all categories of exceptionality. Kirk's own research on the prevention of mental retardation (Kirk, 1958) is a classic in its own right, while his work with McCarthy on the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (Kirk, McCarthy, & Kirk, 1968) has led to the development of special education curricula and contributed to the development of more precise attempts to define the nature of learning disabilities.

"Efficacy Studies"

A final research contribution worthy of mention is the continuing interest in evaluation of the effectiveness of alternative administrative patterns of exceptional child education. These studies, which are documented extensively elsewhere, began during the first quarter of the 20th century and continue today. Many of the studies, known as the "efficacy studies," have focused on the academic achievement of mentally retarded pupils enrolled in self contained special classes. The efficacy studies (essentially uncontrolled ex post facto evaluations) provided no support for the position that mentally retarded children made adequate educational progress in the special class. While these research findings were invalid scientifically, they were used as partial justification for the sweeping changes in special education placement practices which were brought about during the early 1970's by the civil rights movement.

Federal Research Support

Implementation of research requires resources. During the 18th, 19th, and first half of the 20th century, the resources needed to support special education research came from private sources—the researcher or a benefactor—or from state governmental agencies and, occasionally, a research foundation. During this time, support for special education research was meager, for while services to handicapped children were expanding, support for research was not. Special education research activity was often limited to thesis or dissertation research or to statistical surveys conducted by the US Office of Education.

In 1957, Public Law 83-531 was signed. This act, the Cooperative Research Act, was the first law which earmarked federal funds for research related to the education of handicapped children. The congressional appropriation committee designated approximately $667,000 for educational research with mentally retarded children. The second major federal breakthrough came in 1963 with Public Law 88-164. This law authorized funds for research and demonstration projects related to the education of all categories of handicapped children. Since 1963, federal support for research on the education of handicapped children has continued to expand.

BEH Primary Support

The primary federal agency which supports special education research is the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (BEH). This agency currently dispenses approximately $11 million for educational research on the handicapped on an annual basis. Let the fiscal year 1975 serve as an example of how BEH research support is apportioned: According to Glickman (1975), approximately 47% was allocated to research in noncategorical areas of exceptionality, 25% to mental retardation, 8% to the visually handicapped, and another 8% to the hearing handicapped. The remaining 12% was distributed in the areas of the crippled and health impaired, learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, and the speech handicapped. Viewed topically by BEH priority areas, the distribution of funds was as follows: full school services (48%); child advocacy, career education, and personnel development (13% each); severely handicapped (7%); early childhood education (5%); and combined priority areas (1%).

Other Prominent Agencies

BEH is not the only agency which supports research focused on handicapped children. The National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH), the National Institute of Neurological Diseases and Stroke (NINDS), the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD), the Rehabilitation Services Administration (RSA), and the National Institute of Education (NIE) are other prominent federal agencies which have a congressional mandate to support research on the handicapped. A recent study (Kakalik, Brewer, Dougharty, Fleischauer, & Genensky, 1973) estimated that the combined federal and state support for research on the handicapped was approximately $120 million annually. Of this sum, less than one-tenth is provided by BEH.

Since 1957, from an initial level of two-thirds of $1 million annually, federal support of special education research has risen dramatically to a level of approximately $[illegible]1 million annually. Without the federal interest and support, special education research would be inconsequential, both in amount and scope.

The Council for Exceptional Children

A number of professional organizations devoted to single groups of handicapped children, such as the American Speech and Hearing Association and the American Association on Mental Deficiency, have also been significant influences for the stimulation of research with exceptional children. However, The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), with its comprehensive scope, and emphasis on education, has been of singular influence. CEC has demonstrated its support of special education research through the publication of research results in its journals, in research monograph series, and through its annual convention. Among its more significant contributions are a series of texts which provide summaries of significant research pertinent to exceptional children. These texts (Kirk & Weiner, 1963; Johnson & Blank, 1968; Gallagher, 1975) provide comprehensive reviews of a variety of special education research endeavors. CEC has also supported legislation providing federal support for special education research.

Current Emphases of Research

The distribution of research funds mentioned above suggests that the development of procedures and materials to support the goal of full school services for handicapped children is of high priority. Major elements in the federal thrust in this area are five Research and Development Centers located at the Universities of Indiana, Minnesota, and Oregon; Columbia University; and Yeshiva University. The scope of research activity encompassed by these centers includes (a) the development and evaluation of a social learning curriculum for the mentally retarded, (b) facilitation of language and communication abilities of handicapped children under the age of 9, (c) the development of direct classroom intervention procedures for homogeneous groups of behavior disordered children, (d) studies of the classroom application of basic learning research, and (e) modular and computer assisted instruction for teachers of handicapped children.

Interest in the evaluation of special education alternatives continues. The efficacy studies of the first six decades of this century have been replaced by a major effort to evaluate educational mainstreaming programs. Two major efforts in this area are Project PRIME (Kaufman, Semmel, & Agard, 1974) and the UCLA evaluation of mainstreaming programs (Keogh, Kukic, & Sbordone, 1975). Each project is conducting a comprehensive evaluation of a variety of factors which contribute to the success or failure of efforts to return the mildly handicapped child to the educational mainstream.

Early education of handicapped children is a third major area of current and future research concern. Some of today's more creative and energetic research is in this area of concern. Notable projects include the Carolina Abecedarian Project conducted by Craig Ramey and his associates at the University of North Carolina and the research on teaching the severely handicapped preschooler by Diane and Bill Bricker at the University of Miami, by Richard Schiefelbusch and associates at the University of Kansas, and by Norris Haring and associates at the University of Washington.

Possible Future Directions

Since its inception special education research has focused on the identification and evaluation of exceptional children, the educational characteristics of exceptional children, the development of instructional materials and techniques, and evaluations of educational programing alternatives. It is not likely that future research efforts will deviate too far from these topical areas.

Yet, research needs in each of these areas are not clearly articulated. In fact, no detailed explication of research needs in the education of the handicapped is currently available. Neither are there any coordinated research plans designed to meet the educational needs of the handicapped. The closest approximation of a statement of research needs is provided by the recent CEC publication edited by Gallagher (1975). Potentially fruitful areas of educational research are the development of systems for evaluating the handicapped, the learning characteristics and learning strategies of the handicapped, and longitudinal research.

Systems for Evaluating the Handicapped

Evaluation of the cognitive, motor, self help, and personal-social skills of the handicapped child has two objectives: classification and program development. A wide range of tools has been developed for the classification purpose of evaluation, but unfortunately, many of these tools do not lend themselves to effective educational programing. Furthermore, as noted by Hobbs (1975), these tools do not result in cross categorical systems for classifying the handicapped. Hobbs noted that there is a critical need for the development of a comprehensive, cross categorical system for diagnosing and classifying the handicapped. The intent of such a system would be to provide educational program planners with relevant information about each child. In achieving this objective, the system would become useful for classification and for provision of precise educational plans for each handicapped child.

Learning Characteristics and Strategies

Educational programs for handicapped children and youth assume that the instructor has a general understanding of the learning process of each child with whom he or she is working. Practitioners, however, frequently express dissatisfaction with their level of understanding regarding their students' learning skills, a fact not surprising in the light of the lack of empirically based descriptions of the learning performance of the handicapped. In Gallagher's (1975) recent review of child development research and exceptional children, the most frequently identified research need is for identification and understanding of the basic learning processes and strategies by which the handicapped child processes information. The accumulation of such information would provide program planners and teachers with more precise bases upon which to build programs.

Longitudinal Research

Some of the more significant contributions to the early special education research literature were longitudinal studies of the development of various groups of exceptional children, but longitudinal research has not been actively pursued within special education during recent years. Yet Gallagher (1975) noted that longitudinal research is still an important element of special education research. His review noted that longitudinal research should focus on the cognitive and personal-social development of the handicapped with particular emphasis on the influence of these two areas on the development of competence and on the relationship between developmental characteristics and the effectiveness of habilitation programs. There is an urgent need to investigate the interaction of pupil and program characteristics and educational outcomes on a long term basis. The effects of program should be investigated well into the adult life of handicapped persons.

Current and Future Problems

The future of educational research with handicapped children appears bright. Although the knowledge base on which special education practice builds is expanding, it is still only minimal. There is a need for a greater amount of knowledge about those variables relevant to the education of exceptional children; in other words, there is no dearth of important research problems.

However, there are several persisting problems which could have a negative effect on the progress of special education research. These problems include an insistence on the immediate utility of research, the transitory nature of federal funding, inadequate dissemination systems for research results, and inadequate research training both for classroom teachers and for researchers.

Immediate Utility

A major criterion used to evaluate special education research is the immediate utility of the research results. There is a general feeling on the part of the consumer, funding agencies, and Congress that unless research has some immediate application to the solution of a social problem, such research is unworthy of support. Priority is given to knowing how to do something rather than to knowing something. Although this attitude derives from a genuine desire to know how to teach more effectively, an unfortunate result is that knowledge per se is seen not to be of sufficiently high priority to warrant its pursuit. An overall effect of an anti-intellectual climate is thereby created, a climate wherein an intellectual activity cannot develop effectively. In this atmosphere the knowledge base for special education may cease to expand.

Special education ought to be based on a solid foundation of empirically derived knowledge. For example, without such a knowledge base, the recent advances in programing for the severely handicapped could not have been accomplished. A balance between basic and applied educational research needs to be restored and the misinterpretation of development as research needs to be corrected.

Funding Patterns

Current funding patterns for research primarily encourage time-limited research, and comprehensive and systematic programs of research are difficult to maintain because of the limited duration of most research support. The maximum life for most research projects is 3 years. As a result of this pattern of funding, the problems which are selected for study are those that can be resolved in this limited amount of time. The lack of 5 to 10 year support for programs of special education research serves as a second force constricting the expansion of the special education knowledge base.

While the $11 million per year spent on special education research is a significant level of funding, the sum is a gross underfunding of special education research. Kakalik and his associates (1973) estimated that more than $4.7 billion is spent annually for services for the handicapped. Such an extensive commitment to services for the handicapped demands a more significant level of research funding.

Research Dissemination

A major impediment to the application and extension of educational research with the handicapped is lack of efficient, speedy, comprehensive systems for the dissemination of its results. A lag of from 6 months to several years exists between the completion of research and its dissemination. The only comprehensive system for disseminating the results of research and development efforts, the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, is comprehensive, but slow. Additional dissemination avenues other than journal publications are needed for rapid and widespread distribution of the results of significant research.

Research Training

The usefulness of current research is limited by classroom teachers' research training. Although expected to read, interpret, and apply the results of special education research, the classroom teacher is provided with minimal, if any, training in these areas, and as a result, research remains a mysterious element in the special education process. Special educators need to be trained in how to (a) interpret the results of research, (b) apply the results of research to their classroom program, and (c) use research techniques to make data based decisions regarding classroom activities. On the other hand, researchers also need to be better trained. Researchers must have adequate preparation in the identification of researchable questions, in the design of experimentally valid research, and in the presentation of research results in understandable language and usable formats.

Summary

Well controlled research which investigates problems related to the education of exceptional children is a phenomenon of the 20th century. While early special educators engaged in experimentation, their efforts were primarily designed to achieve more effective means of teaching the handicapped rather than to answer a research question.

Major forces influencing the development of special education research are dynamic and creative persons, the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, and The Council for Exceptional Children. The knowledge base of special education practice must continue to grow. Promising areas for growth are the development of systems for evaluating the handicapped, research on the learning characteristics and strategies of the handicapped, and longitudinal investigations of the long term impact of special education services. Pursuit of these and other areas of research promises to make special education research even more exciting in the decades ahead.

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AMERICAN REVOLUTION BICENTENNIAL 1776-1976

The Past is Prologue: Teacher Preparation in Special Education

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As long as the nation's schooling depends upon group instruction and a semblance of homogeneity in graded classrooms, specialists will be required to meet the needs of boys and girls whose ability or performance deviates from the teachers' classroom performance expectations and their ability to cope with unusual behavior. It seems generally agreed that special knowledge, skills, and attitudes are required for those who accept the responsibility for teaching the exceptional child. Although questions abound on where the child should be educated, on the methodology to be employed and even on the most appropriate curriculum approach to be emphasized, it is still recognized that exceptional children need teachers and/or consultants who are aware of and can respond to pupils' unique learning and behavioral characteristics.

Disagreements continue to exist about the qualities required of teachers, the sequence and balance of liberal arts, theoretical and applied content in professional preparation, the site for learning how to teach, the status and role of the prospective teacher in his or her vocational emergence, and the participants in professional education. Opinions on teacher preparation range from the cyclic calls for its demise to those mandating highly specific content and method. The former is based on the notion that dedication, good intentions, and actual experiences are sufficient and that it is impossible to impart pedagogical expertise in any formal manner to the current mandated efforts toward a competency based teacher preparation stated and evaluated in terms of specific behavioral objectives and performance criteria (Wees, 1971). Noteworthy in an attempt to gain perspective on professional preparation of educators is the persistence of this seeming dichotomy throughout the history of teacher education.

Origins

The European pedagogical seminaries of Ratich (1619) in Koethen, Jean Baptiste de la Salle (1684) at Rheims and Francke (1696) in Halle seem to have provided the philosophical and educational base for the United States. These leaders looked to Plato and Aristotle for the liberal arts tradition but they were committed to extend that foundation toward the training of competent specialists in teaching. Hobbes as early as 1651 emphasized that a science of human nature and conduct, as rigorous as the science of physics, was possible. According to Borrowman (1956), this concept gave birth to the assumptions employed in subsequent efforts to create a science of education.

The preparation of teachers of handicapped children emerged in the late 18th and 19th centuries with outstanding specialists and experimenters such as Hauy, Abbe de L'Epee, Heinicke, Pereira, Elliot, Itard, Seguin, and Gallaudet sharing their pedagogical methods with their colleagues and the teachers who worked in the special schools for children with various handicapping conditions. For the most part, these beginnings were inservice efforts. Some were offered as supervisory/on the job instruction. Others were short intensive courses held on the school site or, in some instances, around the clock and live-in apprenticeships in residential schools.

Grasser's effort in the 1820's to establish a department in normal schools and seminaries to train all teachers in methods of instructing deaf children was reported by Bender (1960). Prospective teachers not wishing to undertake this complete program of study in the special field, could be enrolled in a special six week course held on the special grounds. The purpose of the training program was to incorporate deaf children into regular classrooms after 1 ½ to 2 years in a special facility. Although his plan was implemented in several German communities, it was gradually abandoned because not enough allowance had been made in the regular classes for the slower pace required by the deaf children.

The First US Normal Schools

Normal schools in the United States had their foundations in the French schools of the 17th century. In the 1820's, according to Woodring (1975) a few private academies began offering a modicum of teacher education. Their directors were for the most part ministers or politicians. Significant in the development of professional preparation in pedagogy was the action in 1834 by the New York regents to authorize subsidy for teacher training in selected academies within the state. The State Normal School developed at Lexington, Massachusetts (1839) was soon followed by others in Connecticut, New York, Rhode Island, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Michigan, Illinois, and Minnesota. Prior to the Civil War, most elementary teachers had no professional training. However, the effort to change that situation was intense; in 1874, for example, 67 state and 54 private normal schools were serving prospective teachers; in 1898, the number had risen to 166 and 165 respectively.

These beginnings of normal schools specified working with the teacher in training, not the teachers in service, while college education was essentially academic in nature. According to Russell (1928), at the turn of the century inservice efforts were offered through institutes, reading circles, and supervision (largely inspectional). But, he noted, by the end of World War I, public unrest with schools was increasingly evident as the cost of public education rose and school administrators were finding it difficult to justify their programs' worth. Teachers were forced by public pressure to keep abreast of new ideas, techniques, and knowledge. Thus, summer sessions were developed, extension work was made available to teachers-in-service, and professional schools and colleges of education were expanding to accommodate those who could take leaves of absence to prepare for new types of positions.

Although higher education per se was considered the luxury of upper and intellectual middle classes, it was being invaded in the development of professional schools. However, despite the growth of normal schools for prospective teachers, their status remained low. Gradually most of them began to offer four year college level programs and employed selective admissions criteria. By 1945-50, teachers colleges were rapidly being changed to multipurpose state colleges or universities. By 1970 teachers colleges as such were almost nonexistent.

Emerging Special Education

It was in the context of education as a developing and gradually acceptable profession that the education of the handicapped entered the institutions of higher education. Special education moved from the observation and emulation of the masters (e.g. Seguin, Montessori, Strauss and Lehtinen, Bell, Gallaudet, Howe, Johnstone, Doll, and Fernald) to the establishment of special courses, summer session study opportunities, and today's departments of special education in colleges and universities throughout the nation.

Preparation in Residential Settings

Early specialized professional preparation programs were initiated in residential settings. For example, Gallaudet College established its teacher training effort in 1891 (Craig, 1942) and Vineland Training School first offered its summer training sessions for teachers of the mentally retarded in 1904 (Hill, 1945). Of particular note is Alexander Graham Bell's opening of a training school for teachers of the deaf in Boston in 1872 (Bender, 1960). In 1890 he was instrumental in founding the American Association for Teaching Speech to the Deaf, which was to become a national organization of teachers and educators interested in oral instruction for the deaf.

Fortunately for Massachusetts' children who were deaf, blind, or retarded, Samuel Gridley Howe, an outstanding proponent of special services, included in his educational programs for children a teacher training component. Although he was instrumental in establishing residential institutions, including the highly regarded Perkins School for the Blind, he discussed his apprehensions about the blind children's associating almost exclusively with each other when he observed that it was "most desirable that they should associate with the seeing" (1851). However, he saw advantages in the specially prepared personnel and the facilities available to these children.

The residential schools emerged in the mid 19th century. The first day class for the deaf was established in Boston in 1869 through the efforts of Horace Mann; in 1900, the public day class for the blind was inaugurated in Chicago. Day classes for the mentally retarded were opened at the turn of the century—in Providence in 1896, in Chicago and Boston in 1899, and in New York City in 1900. In 1899, a special class for crippled children was set up in Chicago (Wallin, 1924).

Meeting the Increasing Needs

With the expansion of educational services for exceptional children and the beginning enforcement of compulsory education, teachers with specialized knowledge and skill were sought. According to Wallin (1914), the University of Pennsylvania offered a three course sequence in 1897 in the Education of the Mentally Retarded. Soon after, New York University initiated a course, "Education of Defectives," and Teachers College, Columbia University offered "The Psychology and Education of Exceptional Children" in 1906 and 1908 respectively.

By 1929 (Schleier, 1931), 37 teachers colleges and eight normal schools in 22 states and an additional 54 colleges and universities in 38 states and the District of Columbia offered from 1 to 12 courses for the preparation of teachers and supervisors of retarded children. However, since most of these institutions listed only one special education course, Schleier concluded that rather than to prepare teachers of exceptional children, the purpose of the courses (usually the "Psychology of Exceptional Children") was to introduce nonspecializing students to the problems of exceptional children. At the time of Schleier's survey, three teachers colleges, three normal schools and six colleges and universities had established special education departments. Their programs generally included (a) curriculum and methods, (b) practicum, and (c) industrial, manual, or domestic training. Colleges and universities usually added clinical study and a special seminar.

In addition, 18 institutions provided preparation in the education of the physically handicapped, including speech defective (10), sight-saving (4), hearing impaired (3), crippled (2), and blind (2). Schleier recommended that except in unusual situations, only one training center be established in each state in order to (a) prevent unnecessary duplication of courses in a state, (b) eliminate the need to conduct programs for small groups of students, (c) eliminate duplication of equipment and special facilities, and (d) keep the costs at a minimum.

But, the field apparently did not hear Schleier. The number of institutions offering special education courses continued to increase. In 1949, 175 institutions reported providing special education preparation. Of these, 77 were designated as having an integrated curriculum or sequence of course; 12 of them had identifiable special units (departments, divisions, or bureaus) and served at least three different areas of exceptionality (Martens, 1949). Sequences of courses were most frequently reported in the areas of speech (66), deaf and hard of hearing (26), and the mentally retarded (22). This was the first time that criteria for a sequence of courses as a "desirable minimum" for special education teachers were specified in an official government document.

Examining Existing Requirements

In 1952, the US Office of Education with the assistance of the Association for the Aid of Crippled Children undertook a major study of qualifications and preparation of teachers of exceptional children. Both status information and opinions were obtained from approximately 2,000 special educators throughout the country. As part of the study, Mackie and Dunn (1954) noted the existence of 122 institutions with specialized preparation sequences; the greater the number of specialization areas, the more likely a program was to be identified as comprehensive. Most frequently offered were programs in speech and hearing (67). The next largest numbers, in rank order, were the mentally retarded (40), the deaf (22), and the crippled (13). Least frequently included, in order, were the gifted, the blind, special health problems, partially seeing and the socially maladjusted. Only seven institutions of higher education offered a sequence of preparation in six or more areas, and most of the training centers were located in the northeastern and midwestern states. Only one-fourth of the college staff were full time; most of the part time personnel were practitioners working in community special education programs or in the residential schools where much of the teachers' preparation took place. A majority of programs in the area of the deaf were centered in schools, usually with academic credit given through a college or university. Two-thirds of the students majoring in special education (1953-54) were undergraduates. Other than in speech correction, 13 doctor's degrees in special education were reported as having been conferred during the calendar year 1953.

The Surge of Effort

Although state legislatures across the nation had passed laws for mandated or permissive establishment of special education programs, federal aid to the education of handicapped children was minimal until 1958. It was essentially limited to the support of Gallaudet College (1864) and the American Printing House for the Blind (1879). During the 85th Congress, the Cooperative Research Act was passed. Thus, earmarked funds were made available to researchers, principally those in colleges and universities, to conduct systematic study of critical issues such as the efficacy of special education and early educational intervention of the mentally retarded. Such support fostered awareness of the need for experimentation and scholarly study of practices being propagated as "the way" of educating handicapped children. It also provided financial aid and training for practitioners enrolled as doctoral students who also served as research assistants in programs of higher education. Although initial funding was designated for the field of mental retardation, all of special education was coming of age. Opportunity was available for pedagogical research. With expansion of its theoretical and empirical data base, education of exceptional children was becoming less challengable as a profession. Availability of research support was followed in 1958 with training grants for post-masters fellowships in 14 colleges and universities. Focus was on preparation for supervisory and college teaching positions. With this new federal authority, the cadre of researchers expanded. A sense of accountability was evident as awards to universities were given on the bases of stated criteria employed by field readers and panels in judging written program descriptions submitted to the Office of Education.

The Fluctuating Scene

The cooperative research program's earmarking for the handicapped was not continued and threats arose through an almost complete removal of federal categorical support. The low priority of children with mental retardation in the total school population was increasingly evident: In 1957 with earmarking, 61% of the designated funds were spent in the area of mental retardation, but when earmarking was removed two years later, only 9% of the funds were so allocated, and by 1963 the percentage was reduced to 5% (Kirk, 1966).

In the meantime, PL87-276 (1961) was passed establishing training grants for teachers, rather than for leadership personnel in the education of the deaf. The consequences included an increase in the number of teachers being trained under university jurisdiction. Yet, the number of experienced educators of the deaf with doctorates in the area was probably no more than a dozen and, since universities usually required the degree for faculty appointments, responsibilities moved from the residential schools to the universities (a requirement of the law). Control in many instances passed from the educators of the deaf.

This situation shifted, however, upon expansion of the personnel training grants to all disability areas and roles under PL88-164 in 1963 (Martin, 1968). In signing this bill, President Kennedy announced the establishment of a Division of Handicapped Children and Youth, a unit in the US Office of Education, to bring together again its wide range of specialists committed to comprehensive programs. Full parity was established with other Office of Education programs (Martin, 1968). Under the leadership of Kirk, Gallagher, and Martin, Directors of the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped training and research in special education, the legislative mandates have been administered. PL88-164 and PL89-105 authorized grants for research and demonstration in the education of the handicapped and enabled the establishing of Research and Development Centers in several of the large universities. Focus in these centers includes early childhood education, learning characteristics of handicapped children curriculum, and materials development and innovations in teacher education.

Court decisions throughout the country (Lippman & Goldberg, 1973), fostering inclusion of all handicapped children in educational programs, offered new challenges to teacher educators. Emerging were community and residential programs for very young handicapped children as well as for the severely and multiply handicapped who previously were confined to overcrowded residential facilities or who remained educationally unserved at home. An obvious question related to who was responsible for the retraining of educational personnel involved with educational assessment and instruction of new child populations. More importantly, were the colleges and universities qualified or ready to assume their roles and establish the new interdisciplinary and community relationships required?

Achievement of mildly disabled children, particularly in urban special classes, was thought to be inadequate (Dunn, 1968). Those with learning disabilities who had been left to their own devices in regular grades became the new focus of attention. Specially qualified teachers were required to fill revised roles, e.g. resource room teacher, itinerant teacher, or special education consultant to regular classroom teachers. Changed emphasis and objectives were needed to manage community special classes (some with teacher aides or paraprofessionals) or to work in revitalized residential settings; still other teachers would represent education on an interdisciplinary team in a hospital or clinic or perhaps enhance and upgrade instruction despite professional isolation as a teacher in the child's own home.

A summary statement might be that handicapped children are not a homogeneous group. They do not fit easily into any of the 4 or 8 or 12 discrete categories proposed by administrators and college personnel. The uniqueness of each child is generally recognized but, regardless of the expanding and intensifying teacher education efforts, no teacher as yet is qualified to meet the educational needs of all disabled children. Nor are instruction requirements of even fairly homogeneous populations mutually exclusive. The responsibility of the preparation programs remains to produce teachers who can function maximally in each of the educational settings available to handicapped children and youth.

Quality Control

Professional educators have been concerned for many years about the quality of the teachers in their field and about the institutions through which they receive their preparation. The question of standards and control of such enterprises has become a major area of recent emphasis.

According to Lindsey (1961), "prior to 1927 there were no standards for *accreditation* of teacher education, nor was there a list of institutions with accredited programs." In that year, The American Association of Teachers Colleges, founded in 1918, began to accredit teachers colleges. The legally mandated procedures of state certification for teachers, on the other hand, was in effect much earlier. Bush and Enemark (1975) indicated that in 1893 three states certified teachers; by 1926, 36; and in 1967, all states had assumed this responsibility. Specific practices in implementing the certification process differ throughout the country (Abeson & Fleury, 1972). Although teacher certification continues as a state function, efforts are being made to change from certification of individual applicants and general recognition and acceptance of graduates of an approved program or institution to a performance (or competency) based teacher certification.

For the Deaf and the Blind

In the education of handicapped children leadership, to assume at least minimum teacher qualification was sought early in the areas of the blind and the deaf. For example, the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf (CEASD), developed and published a set of standards for preparing teachers to work with deaf children. As highlighted by Hoag and his committee (1972), this effort dates from 1930 when most programs were school centered, inservice type activities. Their review and teacher approval mechanisms influenced university affiliation, adoption and sponsorship. After the passage of PL87-276 provided traineeships for teachers, concerned professional educators worked to revise and strengthen teacher education and to bridge the gap between and among the various vested interest groups within the field. The result of these efforts was the establishment in 1969 of the Council on Education of the Deaf (CED) committee on professional preparation and certification including membership from the Alexander Graham Bell Association, the Conference of Executives of American Schools for the Deaf, and the Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf. Professional standards tended more toward identifying content and moving away from course requirements per se. Leadership in this movement was in the field rather than in the colleges and universities as evidenced in such movements as the institutional accreditation by the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). In the area of the blind, the American Association of Instructors of the Blind formed its committee in 1932 to consider the qualifications necessary for certification by the Association. Potts' proposal in 1934 was adopted to initiate the three step plan whereby teachers might achieve higher certification upon receiving additional preparation. The process of certification of teachers by the Association was favored by the schools for the blind over establishment of training requirements which they felt would be influenced by politics, salary schedules, state regulations, and teacher scarcity (Small, 1936).

For Others

By 1931 (Schleier, 1931), 11 states had specified the need for special certificates or special training in order to teach mentally and physically handicapped children: mentally handicapped (8 states); deaf (4); partially sighted (2); speech defective (2); blind (3); and crippled (2). According to Goldberg (1952), New Jersey was the first state to establish standards; by 1952, 32 states, the District of Columbia and Hawaii had certification requirements relative to the preparation of teachers and other special education personnel. He found no suggestion of a course on exceptional children in any certification for regular teachers. Mackie and Dunn (1954), in their comprehensive report, indicated that most special educators agreed that teachers of exceptional children should first be competent teachers of normal children; 16 states required teachers of exceptional children to hold only a regular teaching credential. Few states had special requirements for the blind, deaf, socially maladjusted, and the gifted. Apparently reliance for quality in the first two areas was later placed on the professional standards efforts within the fields of the deaf and the blind.

Definitions of standards in all the areas of special education appeared in 1966 as a report of the Professional Standards efforts of The Council for Exceptional Children. A more flexible and cross categorical revision adopted by the Council's membership was completed in 1974.

BEH's Influence

Strong influence on professional preparation programs has been exerted through the criteria established by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped in the allocation of training grants to almost all the nation's colleges and universities which have special education components. In evaluating a program, judgment is generally made on evidence of institutional commitment, library and physical resources, faculty's training and experience, student selection, stated goals and specific behaviorally stated objectives, program details including community field experiences, and program evaluation. These factors are reflected in teacher preparation throughout the country. Questions of institutional autonomy have been raised regarding required cooperative planning within states or regions as well as invasion of privacy of teachers in seeking opinions of on the job supervisors as a means of training program evaluation. However, participating institutions have responded well to the process of annually reviewing their efforts. Financial support has served to facilitate recruitment of teachers to meet the demands of the field; many of the students receiving financial support for their training programs could not otherwise have become teachers of handicapped children.

In response to federal requests for proposals (RFP's), and in carrying out "approved projects," the direction of teacher education throughout the country is being influenced. Program development and local priorities are likely to follow areas for which fiscal support is available. However, the participation of field readers, review panels, and advisory committees has introduced a modicum of field input.

More specifically, quality control appears to be emerging from within institutions of higher education, many of whom have been externally encouraged to initiate programs designed to focus on their students' observable competence in teaching. The competency based teacher education movement is viewed as one with mutual and cooperative responsibility of colleges, local schools, professional organizations, and communities in the actual decision making about which knowledge, skills and attitudes are necessary for teachers as well as how competence is to be acquired (Rosner, 1973; Massanari, 1971; Houston & Howsam, 1972). The establishment of parity for each of the major groups contributing to the preparation of professional personnel is recognized as a system of checks and balances which, if trust and cooperation obtain, can be seen as a healthy move in a field's effort toward excellence in meeting its commitment to unique pupil populations.

Trends

Several directions are emerging. A few are noted in special education's attempts to return to suggestions expressed decades ago by pioneers who tried to include handicapped children in the regular educational system. Some reflect a response to consciousness raising relative to program expansion without review of effectiveness or consequences. In other instances, new knowledge and technology are dictating change.

Teacher educators, aware of the need for children's being educated in the best possible setting, are beginning to prepare personnel for a variety of roles, many of which differ considerably from those traditionally ascribed to the teacher in a self contained classroom. Also, in light of changing pupil populations, a broadening of the preparation base across areas of exceptionality is being implemented. Questions related to balance between cross categorical preparation and intensive specialization are under consideration, especially in light of the recognition that special educators are assuming responsibility for children with multiple and often undifferentiated disabilities.

Improving Exposure

The attention given to highly individualized educational assessment and program decision making in professional preparation programs is enabling students to observe and work with many children having a variety of educational problems. On campus child study centers are replacing the artificial campus schools with selected pupils and are permitting preservice and inservice educators to develop observational and problem solving techniques critical to intelligent and effective programing for children.

Interdepartmental program planning, inservice education, and involvement of general educators in work with handicapped children are emerging. Particularly encouraging are efforts such as the Teacher Corps whereby regular classroom teachers with disabled pupils and special educators work side by side in the community schools. The establishment and operation of Leadership Training Institutes to serve total national or regional interests, and the expansion of Instructional Materials Centers to which teachers go for assistance in working with specific pupils, and Special Study Institutes targeted on program aspects have gained considerable field support.

Retraining

Other trends include large scale attempts to retrain older special educators as well as regular classroom teachers preparing to work with handicapped children. Such inservice or recertification programs are being seen as means of assuring teacher accountability, lending continued support to the teacher at work in a changing environment and upgrading the child's learning as his teacher acquires new knowledge and techniques and attitudes in meeting the demands of individualized instruction (Coffing & Cooper, 1973; Yates, 1973; Adelman, 1972).

Expanding the Knowledge Base

The evident trend toward cross categorical teacher education continues as recognition of the folly of clear-cut single disability emphasis spreads. However, removal of in-depth specialization is not so clearly indicated; the challenge is for broadly based preparation which will form the foundation for increasing knowledge and skill in a field. The nation of special education generalists prepared to meet the multifaceted unique needs of all exceptional children seems unrealistic. Without intensive focus to assure an increase of the knowledge base and an application of research findings, the education of exceptional children can stagnate and the disabled will fall victim to cultural and social movements which point toward a progressive devaluation of life in general and of its deviates in particular.

The nature of the severely and multiply disabled populations entering the educational settings indicates that neither one group of special educators nor any other single professional body is able to provide all the input necessary for optimal development of the individual. Efforts are being made to establish cross disciplinary, rather than interdisciplinary, professional education (Connor & Cohen, 1974). Specialists in education need to be prepared to release some aspects of their traditional roles to others while they themselves assume some roles identified with other professionals and in other settings. Such role shifting requires cross disciplinary and cross categorical communication, joint planning, shared learning, and actual performance of skills usually in the repertoire of other professionals. In no instance, however, is accountability on the part of the qualified and certified specialist to be relaxed.

Listening to the Spokesmen

Increased awareness of the potential contributions of special education consumers is evident in professional preparation programs. For example, disabled adults working from various vantage points (i.e. as college students, guest lecturers, teachers, conference participants, and members of organized groups) are challenging existing educational programs and are suggesting change based upon personal experience as well as on input from their constituencies. They are being heard, and today's prospective special educators are being influenced by the flourishing consumer and citizen advocacy spokesmen.

The CBTE Movement

In this competency based teacher education decade (CBTE), with 32 states moving toward such emphasis (US Department of HEW, 1975) an attempt is being made to study the merits of intra-state and inter-university planning (Saettler, 1975). While a governmental control-coercion debate emerges within the colleges and universities, the call for such review parallels Schleier's (1931) early recommendation for control of program expansion.

Questions of academic freedom as well as institutional integrity and autonomy in colleges and universities remain viable topics. It is yet to be seen to what extent (a) course and credit structure can be altered, (b) present faculty (tenured and possibly superannuated) can accommodate to the proposed new roles, (c) physical plants can be moved, and (d) the separateness of the university can be penetrated by the community.

Meanwhile as the CBTE movement is bringing teacher preparation closer to the schools, the organized teaching profession is also seeking its identity (Connor, Rusalem, & Baken, 1974). The emerging school based emphasis on professional preparation is calling for systematic participation of teachers and supervisors in the instruction and evaluation of their potential colleagues. Consequently, powerful teacher groups are seeking increased participation in decision making regarding state certification of teachers and accreditation of institutions, and in deciding conditions under which student teachers and interns will be assigned to practicum centers. The degree to which the CBTE movement remains with its strong emphasis on real or simulated field experience may be determined in large measure by the cooperation of teachers themselves.

Conclusions

The trends presented do not include all that is happening in teacher education. But, first it can be concluded that there is general recognition of the need for greater precision and systematization if instruction of exceptional children is to be improved. Second, the colleges and universities need to shed their isolation for a partnership with teachers, community agencies, and consumers of education (exceptional students and their parents).

The need for program evaluation is evident. Yet, the field is not as yet equipped to take into account all of the interactions of child, teacher, and environmental variables. As data on educational assessment, teacher performance, and student behaviors continue to be collected systematically and computerized for retrieval and analysis, meaningful insights into teacher education and performance occur. As Whitehead (1949) noted, "the stage of precise research, if properly managed, leads to the stage of generalization in which life is seen as a larger whole."

Although the commitment to help teachers to teach is one of long standing, questions still remain on how to prepare them to accommodate the required mobility in a fluctuating job market and how to serve their students in a society with rapidly changing value systems.

Review of the place where teacher education has been, where it is now and what direction it appears to be going reflects a return to the real children in the real educational settings in which prospective teachers will apply their knowledge, skills, and attitudes. We as a field are obviously moving toward a cooperative relationship between the universities and the schools, between theorists and practitioners, and between the real and the ideal. The continuing and concerted move toward improving professional preparation and renewal engender hope — in the future of exceptional children in a society whose response to them remains unstable.

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AMERICAN REVOLUTION BICENTENNIAL 1776-1976 ®

Law, Litigation, and Handicapped Children

JOHN W. MELCHER

Blackstone, the great British jurist, once said, "Law reflects the moral sentiments of the people." This statement contains some hard realities and hopes.

Early Attitudes

The history of man has shown gross fluctuations in society's service or disservice to handicapped human beings during any given period. The moral sentiments of the people have varied because of the influences of secular philosophy, religious teachings, utilitarian considerations, and the relative "enlightenment" of society at a given point in history.

Ancients saw the handicapped as bad omens, drags on society, nonworkers, accursed by the gods, and not worthy of human rights. Medieval thinking was kinder to the physical needs of the handicapped but still refused to accept them as full status humans. They were often regarded as unfortunates whom the Good God expected others to protect. Begging by the blind, deaf, crippled, and those of "weak minds" was allowed because the wrath of God supposedly would strike those who refused to tolerate the existence of the handicapped person. Few attempts were made to rehabilitate the handicapped until the past three centuries when society began to develop crude training programs for the deaf and blind. Laws written by Renaissance kings began to provide protection for the handicapped population in such areas as property rights and criminal law.

Social systems of the 18th and 19th centuries absorbed the handicapped population but with no measurable productivity in the employment markets. While a few creative pioneers like Bonet, Itard, Sequin, and Pereire developed educational methods to improve the performance of their experimental populations, little else was done to move the physically and mentally different into the mainstream of life in the Western world.

America's History in Special Education

Formal education of most children during the first half century of our independence was a low priority item. The education of an overwhelming majority of children with special needs was left until this nation could conquer the frontiers, build farms and industries, and then proceed with important but less life-or-death considerations.

Whose Responsibility?

School law has had a state and local school district emphasis from the early days of our nation. The original Federal Constitution did not assume federal responsibility for this governmental function and hence delegated all school matters to the states. Subsequent amendments to the US Constitution also avoided any direct federal assumption of school authority or responsibility. Hence, this privilege and obligation is left to the states and whatever school entities they choose to provide free *public* education. Constitutions in each of the 50 states provide the general mechanisms under which free public education can or must be provided. These state constitutions vary markedly in the manner in which they carry out this prerogative. All states but one have delegated a portion of their responsibility to local public school entities which American juris prudence describes in the following manner:

> School Districts may generally be defined as local administrative authorities with fixed territorial limits, created by the legislature, and subordinate to its will, as agents of the state for the sole purpose of administering the state system of public education.

Free Public Education

Many of the early state constitutions spoke freely and somewhat loosely about guaranteeing free public education to *all* children. Massachusetts (1837) and Connecticut (1838) established state boards of education to oversee public education. Another example of an early promise to educate all children at public expense is found in Article X, Section (1), of the Wisconsin Constitution adopted March 13, 1848, which stated:

> The legislature shall provide by law for the establishment of district schools which shall be free to *all* children between the ages of four and twenty years.

While many state constitutions in the last century and in the first half of this century promised free public education to all children, this end has not been reached in any state of the union. Nonetheless, gradual improvement in the education of American children with handicapping conditions has evolved.

From Asylums to Statutory Provisions

In the early 1800's the asylum concept was used as exemplified by the American Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb in Hartford, Connecticut, which served many handicapped persons beginning in 1817. By October 1948, public facilities for the retarded had opened in Massachusetts. Other state institutions followed in rapid succession in the East and spread quickly westward with frontier development.

State statutory provisions for permissive or mandatory education of handicapped children began with New Jersey in 1911; Minnesota in 1915; and Wisconsin, Illinois, and New York in 1917. However, the Great Depression of the 1930's, coupled with the fiscal focus on winning World War II, kept the expansion of special education for the handicapped to a "trickle."

A Major Thrust

Following World War II the United States was finally ready for a major thrust in serving the handicapped. In my opinion, much of this was due to the following factors:

1. Professional knowledge in this area was expanding at a rapid rate.
2. The country felt an acute need to repair its war wounded and also those children who had physical and mental disorders.
3. Prominent people in many fields began to give visibility and significance to the push for better education of handicapped children. Names like Pearl Buck, Roy Rogers, Dale Evans, and the Kennedy family gave stature to the movement for improvement of the education of the handicapped.
4. Parents of less national prominence but with considerable regional, state, and local prestige added their voices to the call for carrying out our Constitutional mandates. Nationally, groups such as the National Association for Retarded Citizens developed and became a powerful legislative lobby.
5. Professionals serving the handicapped began to amalgamate their efforts and activities into both scholarly and political forces, and reinforced the parental demands for services to the handicapped. It seems to me the greatest single force from the professional ranks came from The Council for Exceptional Children and its national network of active members and strong governmental relations staff.
6. Legislators, both national and state, decided that this social need was due for their political consideration. It became politically popular for legislators to fight for these people who had been avoided so long.
7. President John Kennedy's Panel on Mental Retardation and its report to the President in 1962 entitled, "A Proposed Program for National Action to Combat Mental Retardation," generated interest. This extensive study outlined the need for the following:
    a. Each state should establish a protective service for the retarded in an appropriate state agency.
    b. Guardianship of the property of a retarded person should be clearly differentiated from guardianship of the person.
    c. The court must have at its command a comprehensive clinical evaluation by appropriate personnel drawn from the professions of medicine, psychology, education, and social work.
    d. There should be judicial review every 2 years regarding the need for continued institutional care of all retarded adults, whatever their type of admission.
    e. The whole body of law and mental retardation should be reviewed periodically in each jurisdiction.
8. The federal government began to move slowly into a supportive role in both finance and research. Especially encouraging was the

development of a revitalized Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, which has served as a rallying point in government for those concerned with the education of the handicapped as well as a source of financial "risk capital" that can fund creative programing in education of children with exceptional needs at the state and local levels.

A Feeling of Urgency

Concurrent with progress, a growing feeling of frustration was felt by parents and others concerned who refused to let "an idea whose time had come" be allowed to walk rather than run. With this feeling of urgency came a torrent of mandatory legislation at the state level and a sharp increase in litigation calling states and school districts to task for violating statutes, constitutions, and rights of children. A major legal source of help to the thrust of the 1970's is the use of the federal court system in such cases as: *Diana v. State Board of Education in California*, 1970; *Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Citizens v. The Commonwealth of Pennsylvania*, 1971; *Mills v. The Board of Education in the District of Columbia*, 1972; *Colorado Association for Retarded Citizens v. State of Colorado*, 1972; *Kentucky Association for Retarded Citizens v. Kentucky*, 1974; and *Panitch v. State of Wisconsin*, 1974.

What Next in Law and Litigation?

Since the moral sentiments of the people are so transient, we can expect significant changes in law and litigation process in the next decade. Some of the precursors of new laws and litigation are beginning to appear.

Speculations

My 10 speculations in law and litigation for the ensuing 10 years are these:

1. Statutes will be sharply modified to put emphasis on the right of the handicapped person to be a *direct* party and an involvee in *all* procedures.
2. Laws will be modified to allow third parties to intervene on behalf of the child who may need service but whose parent, guardian, or surrogate has failed to seek or respond to suggested educational treatment programs.
3. Litigation against the schools will increase in the area of program quality as opposed to program availability. Phrases such as "appropriate educational program" will be tested in the courts to determine the limits of parental veto of specific school programs. Thus, standards of evaluation will be established which the courts can use to measure appropriateness of services for given children with exceptional educational needs.
4. Third party negotiators will be used by the courts to expedite service to children. These third party negotiators will be skilled in both the processes of special education and the dynamics of adversary related proceedings. A second step in this bargaining plan approach will be the partial assignment of court powers to arbiters whose powers will be binding on both parties to the dispute.
5. Public laws will be enacted that will require school districts to

offer alternative programs that give the child or his legal representatives a choice of special educational methodologies and strategies.

6. The courts will avoid rendering irrevocable decisions as they have been prone to do over the course of legal history. It appears the courts are now trying to avoid premature resolution that might prove to answer only a legal technicality and not resolve the full problem inherent in the suit. The trend seems to point toward a higher case surveillance level by the courts than the old pontificating produced.
7. Litigation between and among school groups will be expanded as we try to carry out new mandates such as mainstreaming, normalization and due process oriented screening, and evaluation proceedings. Teachers of regular classes will determine the limits of their responsibility and involvement in meeting the educational needs of the severely handicapped. School boards will seek legislation and be involved in litigation that will try to determine the role of residential facilities in providing for the needs of the low incidence handicapped populations.
8. Liability suits against school systems, teachers, support personnel, and administrators will increase markedly as the quality and accountability issues gain momentum. These suits will produce legislation that will provide good Samaritan types of protective legislation against liability suits directed against individuals and groups. This litigation will change the mode of operation of many professional persons and policy making bodies.
9. Post hoc damage suits will be brought by adults who feel that the special education they received or failed to receive as children has harmed their development. These law suits will relate to the school staffs and their standards of competency, conduct, and commitment.
10. Laws relating to compulsory attendance, exclusion, and expulsion will change. Such matters as review of all exclusions and expulsions by nonschool authorities prior to nonemergency expulsion will be demanded. Civil suits will ask for monetary awards for damages suffered by the children affected by expulsion or exclusion.

A New Relationship

In summary, I am confident of a more intertwined relationship between lawyers and educators in the next decade. I sincerely hope all of this interaction will be for the benefit of the handicapped children rather than for the comfort or profit of the professionals involved.

AMERICAN REVOLUTION BICENTENNIAL 1776-1976 ®

Who Are *All* the Children?

WAYNE D. LANCE

Education for *all* exceptional children! Two hundred years as a nation, and as we embark on the third century, we have declared through our laws and by personal commitment that, at last, none shall be excluded. The fact of education for all, meaning equal educational opportunity, has yet to catch up with the intent. Yet, there is satisfaction in knowing that the intent has been expressed in so clear a manner. As in any great endeavor, the beginnings were small, the result of vision and of personal dedication, born out of a love for humanity manifested in the actions of men and women. Vignettes selected from the history of special education serve as reminders that recent achievements may not be claimed as tributes to this generation alone, but are the fruit of seeds planted long ago by a few in recorded history and by many who never made the printed page.

Revolutionary Strides

- *Hartford, Connecticut, April 15, 1817:* The Rev. Thomas H. Gallaudet, principal of the Connecticut Asylum for the Education and Instruction of Deaf and Dumb Persons, announced today that seven pupils were enrolled on this opening day. Mr. Gallaudet returned from Europe last August where he had studied the art of instructing the deaf and dumb for nearly 15 months. The new asylum is the first permanent school for the education of deaf-mutes in this country and is supported by both private charity and an appropriation of $5,000 from the Connecticut Legislature (Fay, 1893).

- *Boston, August 18, 1831:* The New England Asylum for the Blind, incorporated over two years ago, finally has a director, it was announced today. Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe, a physician, plans to travel to the continent later this year to observe programs for the blind and to engage teachers. The school is scheduled to open sometime next year once space has been found and staff employed (Farrell, 1956).

- *Boston, October 1, 1848:* An experimental school for idiotic children opened in a wing of the Perkins Institution today. Ten children are enrolled and James B. Richards has been assigned as the teacher. An amount of $2,500 per annum has been appropriated by the Legislature following the receipt of a report from a special commission chaired by Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe. The commission sees the school as a model for the rest of the country. Quoting from Dr. Howe's report " . . . it would be demonstrated that no idiot need be confined or restrained by force; that the young can be trained for industry, order, and self-respect; that they can be redeemed from odious and filthy habits, and there is not one of any age who may not be made more of a man and less of a brute by patience and kindness directed by energy and skill" (Kanner, 1964, pp. 41-42).

- *Chicago, September 17, 1900:* Demands by parents for day school classes for their blind children were realized today as a special classroom opened in a regular school in this city. Mr. John Curtis, the teacher, indicated that the program is considered to be an experiment to see if blind children can be educated nearer to their homes rather than having to reside at the state school in the southern part of the state (Farrell, 1956).

- *Worcester, Massachusetts, September, 1901:* Preparatory schools for gifted children opened in Worcester this month, initiating a new concept in education. Believed to be the first such school in the United States specifically for the benefit of unusually bright children, these schools provide seventh, eighth, and ninth graders with opportunities to accelerate their studies in Latin, French, German, and algebra, in addition to the usual studies. After two years in the preparatory school these students will enter high school with a full year's credit in these special subjects (McDonald, 1915).

- *New York City, September 1908:* Public School No. 2, under the direction of principal J. F. Reigart, began a new program for children with defective speech this month. Mr. Reigart stated that the teacher of the class has engaged in special study to prepare her to help these children overcome their speech problems. According to City School Superintendent Maxwell, "The experiment . . . demonstrates that the attempt to cure serious speech defects, which interfere with success and satisfaction in life is possible and well worth while" (McDonald, 1915, p. 88).

- *Anystate, USA, September 15, 1980:* In a special news release from the office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Superintendent announced that the goal of providing full educational opportunity to all children within the state has been achieved. He issued an invitation to anyone knowing of a child with a learning problem who is not receiving an appropriate education to please contact his office immediately. "The measure of success," said the Superintendent, "is nothing less than 100%."

Changing Attitudes and Changing Children

The first six vignettes reflect the facts of recorded history—the last encompasses a hope and confidence in the efforts of a myriad of parents, educators, legislators, and others during the remaining years of this decade.

Establishment of Special Education

The recognition of the need to provide different treatments to individuals with obviously differing capacities for benefiting from the traditional educational practices led to the establishment of special education. From an historical perspective, special education may be viewed as developing through three successive stages: "(1) treatment through the segregation and restriction of resources for survival appropriate for people called different, (2) caring for people regarded as different by providing resources required for their physical existence, and (3) instructing such people so that they may be incorporated into existing, dominant social systems" (Heiny, 1971, p. 344). While examples from contemporary history may demonstrate that we have yet to fully pass from stage one, pronouncements abound that our goals have passed beyond segregation and restriction, through mere caring, to an attempt to assist the exceptional individual to be able to meet certain cultural standards. Whether those standards should be those of the dominant society or of pluralistic cultures is a much debated topic and one in which there is little consensus among special educators.

Recognition and Labeling

The vignettes from the 19th century illustrate rather nicely how special education began in this country with a recognition of the exceptional individual as a homogeneous element of the population and with labels to legitimate the classifications (Heiny, 1971). Bartel and Guskin (1971) supported the thesis that the process of identifying and so labeling individuals not only creates a handicap, but also exacerbates the condition as people so marked are treated differently. It seems that the very process which enabled large numbers of children to be educated, first in residential institutions and later in day schools and classes, often led to increasing segregation continuing into the adult years. As one reviews the early history of special education in the United States (Frampton & Rowell, 1938; Wallin, 1924), it is apparent that advances in our abilities to diagnose led to greater homogeneity in populations assigned to special programs and less opportunity for exceptional individuals to participate actively with nonhandicapped individuals.

Social Indictment

Looking back upon the early years of this century it appears that the more society became aware of the extent of handicapping conditions, especially in the area of mental retardation, the greater the alarm expressed through various forms of social indictment (Davies, 1959). This indictment, manifested in various forms of discrimination and segregation nevertheless caused an awakening among educators regarding the responsibilities public schools should assume for the education and rehabilitation of handicapped children and youth.

Leaders like Wallace Wallin directed educators' attention to a more comprehensive view of factors, both "intrinsic and extrinsic," to use Wallin's words that tended to "mar" the development of the handicapped individual (Wallin, 1914).

"Happiness First" Motto

Following such leads, pupils began to be viewed as functioning members of their *total* environment. Educators expanded their concepts of what education was really all about and the result was a broadening of the curriculum especially in day schools and day classes for the exceptional, to include a variety of training in the practical arts along with a continuing emphasis on the basic academic skills. The curriculum developed by the special class teachers of Boston prior to World War I exemplified this trend (*The Boston Way*, 1924). The "happiness first—all else follows" motto imported from abroad (Bridie, 1917) began to permeate the philosophies of special educators about this same time in our history, and while segregation of the handicapped was the order of the day, the emphasis was nonetheless one of making education a pleasant, and hopefully, practical experience.

Mainstreaming Is upon Us

This "caring attitude" on the part of educators led to a reexamination of the curriculum for the exceptional and a definite movement toward an individualization of instruction. Schwartz and Oseroff (1975) reviewed some 100 years of literature pertaining to individualized instruction and concluded that the developmental phases of this movement have led to rather highly structured systems for individualizing instruction. Thus we moved from a "happiness first" philosophy to a prevailing attitude that pupils should be able to demonstrate competency in any number of areas appropriate to their career objectives. This appears to coincide with Heiny's (1971) stages of development and we find ourselves pressing rapidly into stage three, namely providing programs such that the exceptional individual will be incorporated into the dominant social system. Mainstreaming is upon us—woven into our laws, our policies, and the very attitudes underlying the way in which we approach the development and implementation of programs for the exceptional individual.

Far More than Placement

The complexities of mainstreaming become evident as one considers the implications of a definition supplied by Kaufman, Gottlieb, Agard, and Kukic (1975):

> Mainstreaming refers to the temporal, instructional, and social integration of eligible exceptional children with normal peers based on an ongoing, individually determined, educational planning and programming process and requires clarification of responsibility among regular and special education administrative, instructional, and supportive personnel (p. 4).

As described by The Council for Exceptional Children, mainstreaming is far more than the placement of a child into a regular program for a period of time each day (Caster, 1975). The interactions of the instructional variables with social and temporal factors must all be accounted for in conjunction with the process of planning and the delineation of role responsibility. As the implications of mainstreaming become more evident, the prevailing attitudes seem to return to social innovation rather than social perpetuation. Heiny (1971) hypothesized that, "Social reformers seek redistribution of resources in favor of those who are labeled different, and social perpetuators seek efficient and effective use of resources within the distributions obtained by reformers" (p. 348). The goal of full educational services for all children and the concept of mainstreaming embedded within that goal requires social innovation rather than a reliance on a mere perpetuation of the principle of maintenance.

A Long Time in the Making

The call for full services to all children is not a product of this decade alone. It is interesting to note the parallels in statements issuing from the executive branch of government following the White House Conference on Children and Youth in 1930 and the writings of Elsie Martens of the US Office of Education in 1944. Such statements as, "The concept of free public education for all children admits of no exceptions," and "no State program of services for exceptional children is complete *until it includes them all, with preference for none*" (Martens, 1944, pp. 1, 13) are evidence that the goal of full service to all exceptional children has been a long time in the making.

Professional organizations, like The Council for Exceptional Children, have been long time advocates of a full service concept. The Council has offered considerable assistance to education in such matters as the establishment of model legislation (Weintraub, Abeson, & Braddock, 1971) and in offering conferences and other platforms for the promotion of innovations. Organizations such as the National Association for Gifted Children have generated considerable grass roots support for specific exceptionalities, the result often being a focusing of attention on the needs of all children.

Evidence for Needed Changes

Comprehensive studies and reviews of special education programs as exemplified by the "Project on the Classification of Exceptional Children" (Hobbs, 1975a, 1975b) and the Rand Report (Kakalik, Brewer, Dougharty, Fleischauer, Genensky, & Wallen, 1974) have also begun to have impact on the attitudes regarding exceptionality as held by various segments of the public sector. Such studies, along with results of applied research, have been used as evidence for needed changes.

Equally compelling as a force to change attitudes has been the actions of the courts. Not only have the courts said that appropriate education for the handicapped is an inalienable right (Gilhool, 1973; Weintraub & Abeson, 1972), but they have also spoken out regarding the classification of students (Kirp, 1974) and due process requirement (Abeson, Bolick, & Hass, 1975).

Responsibility of the Advocacy Function

Even as the results of litigation have been felt at every level—federal, state, and local—so too have advocates for the exceptional individual begun to organize in the form of national, state, and local advisory groups and councils. Councils on developmental disabilities are becoming active in every state (Stedman, 1976), and child advocacy systems at the local level are involving parents and neighborhood groups (Reynolds, 1974). While advocacy may usually be defined as "an independent movement of consumers (e.g., parents, people with disabilities, and children) and their allies to monitor and change human service agencies" (Biklen, 1976, p. 309), it may also be a function performed by a public agency such as the public schools.

Among the recommendations from the "Project on the Classification of Exceptional Children," which could have tremendous impact on public school programs for the handicapped if implemented, is one dealing with assignment of responsibility for the advocacy function. The recommendation reads as follows: "The public schools should be the institution with primary advocacy responsibility for providing or obtaining educational and related services for all children in need of special assistance whose condition or life circumstances does not require their institutionalization" (Hobbs, 1975a, p. 250). Such responsibility should begin, according to the authors, as early as children are identified after birth and should continue at least through the usual school years. Schools should provide, or arrange to be provided, not only the usual educational services, but therapy, special diets, prosthetic devices, drugs, and medical and health care. The educational program should include recreational programs, halfway houses, sheltered vocational settings, and a full range of activities covering all aspects of the handicapped individual's life space.

In this, our country's bicentennial year, we find ourselves on the threshold of achieving a goal that the Rev. Gallaudet and Dr. Howe would certainly have endorsed as they commenced their heroic efforts with a mere handful of children requiring special help. Where they talked in terms of educational programs for a few, we now look to providing full services to more than 9 million mentally or physically handicapped children and youth aged 0 to 21 (Kakalik, et al., 1974). Our changing attitudes are evident—it seems well to ask, "Who are all the children?"

A Dynamic Concept of Exceptionality

The concept of exceptionality is not a static one. Over the decades as our society has moved from a position characterized by segregation of the severely handicapped and neglect of the mildly and moderately handicapped to a position marked by integration and acceptance, we have seen an expansion of the range of ages for which we believe society should assume some responsibility as well as demonstrations of responsibility for individuals who in some way have difficulties in adjusting or learning (such difficulties not being limited solely to the traditional handicaps). But the expanding concept of exceptionality goes beyond learning and adjustment problems per se to a concern for any individual for whom the usual educational program is not entirely appropriate.

Thus, over the years, the schools have periodically recognized that the needs of gifted children were not being met by the traditional instructional programs, and sporadic and isolated attempts have been made to adjust curriculum and methods for these students. Recognition that children who have been abused by parents and guardians may require adjustments in the typical school program is another example of a dynamic concept of exceptionality. Children from minority groups who are gifted or who have handicapping conditions often have unmet needs stemming not only from their difficulties in benefiting from a typical school program because of their giftedness or handicap, but further compounded by the cultural inappropriateness of materials, methods, and educational technology.

Three Dimensions

Perhaps we can best picture the expanding concept of exceptionality along three dimensions, each exerting an interactive influence upon the other: (a) chronological age, (b) degree of variation from the norm in educational related performance, and (c) environmental and cultural factors impacting on the learner's accommodation to school programs. In this decade, we are experiencing a movement to broaden the schools' responsibility up and down the age range (to wit, programs for preschool handicapped youngsters and young adult handicapped) to include the severely handicapped formerly considered the responsibility of residential institutions, and to accommodate programs to a pluralistic society and to children affected adversely by home and community influences.

Noteworthy Progress

An encouraging aspect of this expanding concept of exceptionality is a move away from rigid labels and categories toward a focus on the learning characteristics of children and the accommodation of educational programs to these characteristics. The most noteworthy progress in arriving at an understanding of the issues involved in classifying and labeling children was achieved through the "Project on the Classification of Exceptional Children" under the direction of Nicholas Hobbs (Hobbs, 1975a, 1975b). Sponsored by 10 federal agencies, 93 experts from various disciplines summarized existing knowledge relating to the topic of classification of children which was used in developing a set of 40 recommendations presented to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare. A number of these recommendations are given vitality in the recently enacted "Education for All Handicapped Children Act" (Public Law 94-142).

Who Are They?

Who are all the children? They are the more than 9 million physically or mentally handicapped children and youth in this country, ages 0 to 21 who need services not required by "normal" youth (Kakalik, et al., 1974). They are the gifted and talented who usually manage to survive within traditional classroom settings but often fail to achieve their potential during the school years. As The Council for Exceptional Children declared in a resolution adopted in 1974, they are the tens of thousands of abused and neglected children for whom educators have responsibilities to assist in prevention of further injury and to provide programs to remediate the damage that has occurred (Soeffing, 1975). They are the handicapped persons from minority groups whose educational problems are compounded by failure of the curriculum and methodology to adapt to language and culture factors that impinge on the educational process (Norris & Overbeck, 1974). In short, a dynamic concept of exceptionality encompasses all the children for whom regular school programs must be adapted in order to help the children achieve in accordance with their potential, regardless of the degree of deviance from the norm or the effects of environmental influences.

Achieving the Goal

Education for *all* exceptional children. Is this goal really within our reach? What are the resources upon which we can rest our hope for such a noble objective? What evidence exists that we are ready to move forward at an unprecedented rate? We can point to a number of encouraging trends that give substance to what could easily become an elusive goal beyond our grasp.

Federal Support

According to a recent study completed by the Rand Corporation for the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, the annual federal expenditures for programs for all handicapped youth was in excess of $1 billion (Kakalik, et al., 1974). Of this amount, the federal government expended about $314 million for special education programs, constituting about 12% of the total amount spent nationwide by all government agencies. This evidence of federal support is only a beginning as we view the intent of Public Law 94-142 which was adopted by the Congress and approved by President Ford late last year. This law, which assures a free appropriate public education to all handicapped children, authorizes federal expenditures exceeding $3 billion annually by 1982.

Local Assistance

Proposed rules being promulgated by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare put teeth into the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 by requiring annual efforts to locate individuals requiring special assistance and subsequent provision of as suitable an education as that provided to nonhandicapped persons (HEW, 1976). Through federal and state efforts, national, regional, and state learning resource systems are being established to provide assistance and support to exceptional children and their teachers (Lance, 1975). Smaller school districts are combining resources to better muster the resources needed to provide full educational services (Colella & Foster, 1974). Regional direction services are being established in several states to bridge the gaps between agencies serving the handicapped. Systematic representations of the concept of full educational services have been developed and disseminated (Crosson, 1975).

The Role of Technology

On another front, one is encouraged by the developments in technology which have already impacted on our ability to better serve the exceptional. The application of technology to meet the seemingly overwhelming obstacles imposed by sensory handicaps can be traced into antiquity, probably even predating Jerome Cardan's advocacy of using the sense of touch for the blind and a system of signs for the deaf in the 16th century (Farrell, 1956). It was the efforts of the brilliant blind Professor Louis Braille, however, who perfected a system of raised dots during the 1830's that was later to become such an integral part of educational programs for the blind. While this tactile system of reading has served the blind so well for over a hundred years, the potential for the application of modern technology tickles the imagination.

Already the OPTICON reader is in use in many countries

(Telesensory Systems, Inc., 1976). This compact device allows the reader to move an optical scanner across a page and to receive tactile impressions representative of the printed letters on the index finger of one hand. A blind individual, once trained to use this device, is no longer limited in the scope of reading to only those materials which have been put into braille. The "Talking Calculator," which "speaks" when the buttons are depressed and provides an audio as well as visual output, permits the blind to perform complex mathematical calculations as easily and rapidly as the seeing. Initial experimentation with the Vocoder, a device that translates auditory signals into tactual impressions for use by hearing impaired individuals, is equally exciting in its implications for improving educational opportunities for the sensory handicapped (Engelmann & Rosov, 1975). The use of microfiche readers and devices such as the Optiscope Enlarger (Hellinger & Berger, 1972) for immediate enlarging of the printed page by partially sighted individuals holds promise for bypassing the slow and expensive process of printing materials in large type. Other applications of technology, including the use of computers and specialized media, have been described (Lance, 1973), many of which can enhance the instructional process for the handicapped learner.

Commitment of the Individual

Yet, the achievement of the goal of full educational services for all exceptional children will not be a product merely of federal and state assistance or of the applications of systems and technology. Rather it depends upon the commitment of individuals ready and able to devote themselves to the demanding requirements of being an effective teacher of the exceptional individual. Anne Mansfield Sullivan exemplifies this commitment, the ability to appraise a situation and to demonstrate a caring attitude and innovative teaching style so necessary if we are to reach *all* the children. Upon arriving in Tuscumbia on March 3, 1887, Miss Sullivan found Helen Keller, an untaught, quick tempered, willful child, waiting to be guided to a full achievement of her potential. As Miss Sullivan handed Helen a doll and slowly spelled "d-o-l-l" in her hand, a relationship was begun that would eventually result in a deaf and blind child blossoming into a creative adult (Keller, 1904).

While much has changed since Rev. Gallaudet opened a school for the deaf in 1817 and Miss Sullivan held out a hand to a little girl in 1887, one constant remains: Success in helping any exceptional individual to achieve a full measure of the potential which is uniquely his is dependent upon the expression and demonstration of a loving concern by those adults who have been given the opportunity to devote themselves as teachers of exceptional children. Because this constant is still apparent in so many individuals today, the goal of a full and appropriate education for *all* exceptional children appears to almost be within our grasp.

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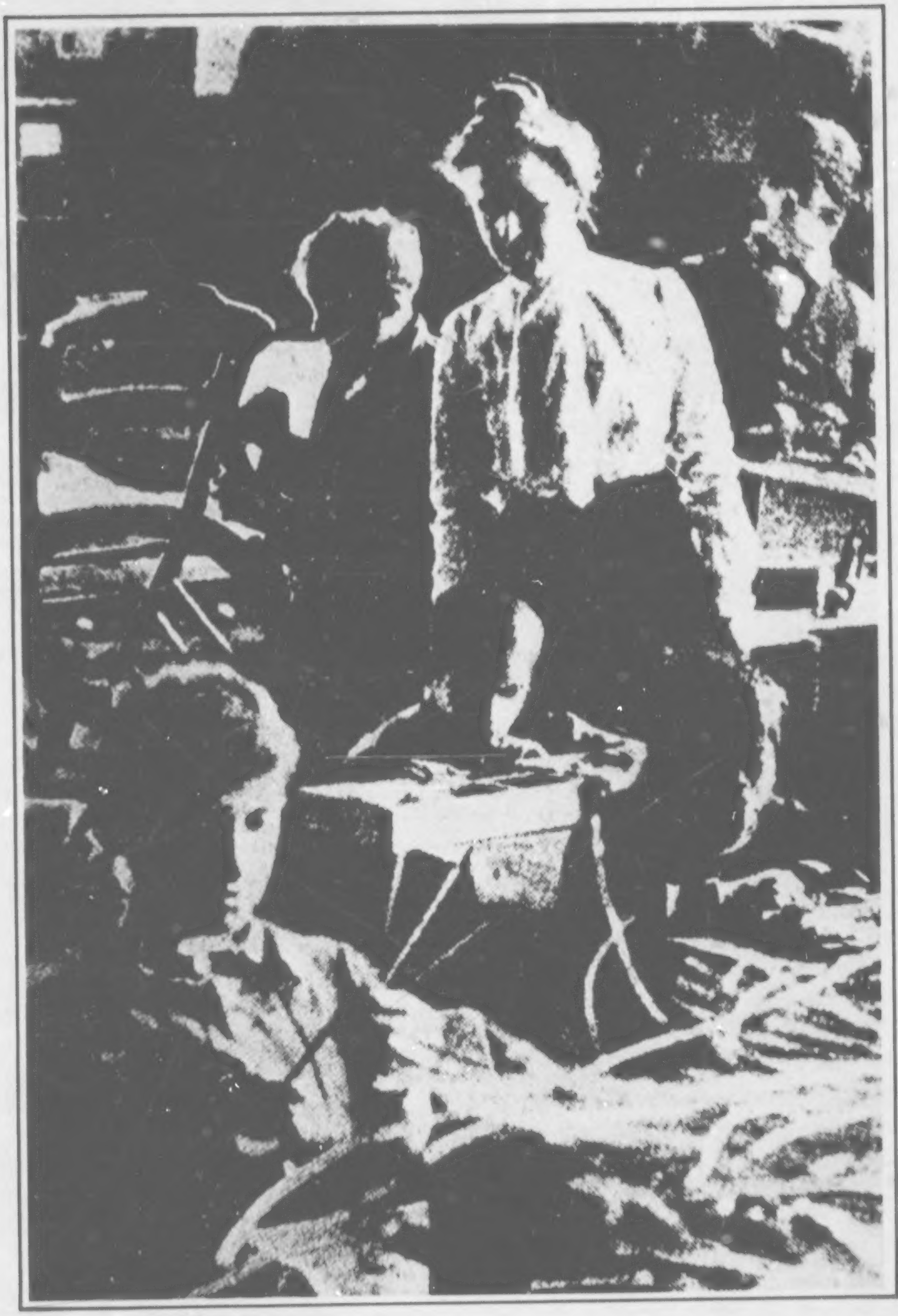

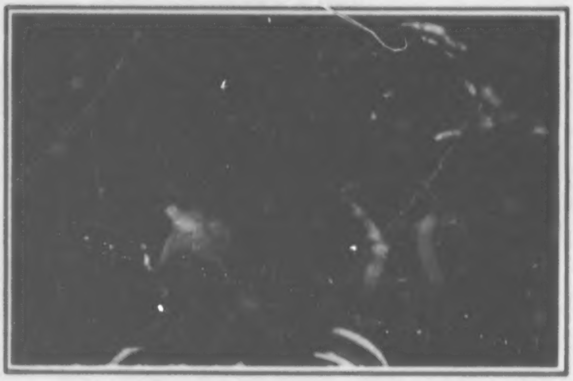

FULL EDUCATIONAL OPPORTUNITIES FOR HANDICAPPED INDIVIDUALS

Education is the right of all. This principle is based on the philosophical premise of democracy, that every person is valuable in his or her own right and that each individual should be given equal opportunity to develop full potential. Too often this premise has not been applied to *all* persons. Throughout the history of American education, individuals with special learning needs have faced the policy of closed door exclusion rather than inclusion.

Who are the children schools have tended to neglect or exclude? Who are the youth or adults who have sought relevant training only to face indifference and apathy? They are the individuals who have been called "handicapped" and who because of physical, mental, emotional, or learning problems require specialized education services. In the United States there are an estimated 7 million school age (plus 1 million preschool age) deaf, blind, mentally retarded, speech impaired, motor impaired, emotionally disturbed, multiply handicapped, learning disabled, or other health impaired children. There are many times that number of handicapped adults.

This chapter was presented as a current awareness paper prepared by The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC), Reston, Virginia, for the White House Conference on Handicapped Individuals. However, it should be noted that this paper has not been adopted as an official position document of the Council. Contributors to this paper were: K. Eileen Allen, University of Kansas; Gloria Calovini, Illinois State Department of Education; William C. Geer, CEC; Norris G. Haring, University of Washington; Jean R. Hebeler, University of Maryland; Philip R. Jones, Wisconsin State Department of Education; June B. Jordan, CEC; Hugh S. McKenzie, University of Vermont; Herbert J. Prehm, University of Oregon; Maynard C. Reynolds, University of Minnesota; Herbert Rusalem, Teachers College, Columbia University; M. Angele Thomas, CEC; H. Rutherford Turnbull, III, University of North Carolina; and Frederick J. Weintraub, CEC.

Handicapped children and handicapped adults require different kinds of education programs and services. Although this chapter identifies various special education needs, the emphasis is on those for the early years and the school age child. It is during this time that an appropriate, relevant education can provide the foundation for a successful, rewarding life.

Although handicapped children represent approximately 10% to 12% of the school age population, and although the number of handicapped children receiving special education services has grown, only about 4% of these children are receiving an education designed to enable them to achieve to their maximum capacity. Additionally, there are an estimated 1 million handicapped children who are totally denied access to a free public education. Further, there are an estimated 125,000 mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, and physically handicapped children who live in state institutions where education programs are inferior or nonexistent (Weintraub, Abeson, & Braddock, 1975).

On November 29, 1975, President Ford signed the "Education for All Handicapped Children Act," which is now Public Law 94-142. This landmark legislation represents a major breakthrough in insuring the appropriate education for all, particularly those children and youth who were unserved or underserved. Public Law 94-142 is a federal/state partnership with the federal government firmly committed to financial support. Education programs, however, remain the responsibility of the state governments and local school systems.

Public Law 94-142 makes a number of critical stipulations which must be adhered to by both states and local school systems. These requirements include:

- Assurance of extensive child identification procedures.
- Assurance of the "full service" goal and a detailed timetable.
- A guarantee of complete due process procedure.
- Assurance of regular parent or guardian consultation.
- Maintenance of programs and procedures for comprehensive personnel development including inservice training.
- Assurance of special education being provided to all handicapped children in the "least restrictive" environment.
- Assurance of nondiscriminatory testing and evaluation.
- A guarantee of policies and procedures to protect the confidentiality of data and information.
- Assurance of the maintenance of an individualized program for all handicapped children.
- Assurance of an effective policy guaranteeing the right of all handicapped children to a free, appropriate public education, at no cost to parents or guardian.
- Assurance of a surrogate to act for any child when parents or guardians are either unknown or unavailable, or when said child is a legal ward of the state.

Throughout this chapter reference is made to Public Law 94-142 and the potential impact this legislation could have in bringing about "full educational opportunities for the handicapped." This chapter addresses the current areas of activity, concern, and developments essential to implementing a program to insure this goal. Specific topics to be addressed include:

1. The Legal Right to Education—Federal law mandates that school age children have the right to a free, public, and equal educational opportunity. The challenge of implementation and monitoring of that law is now before the consumers and professionals.
2. Financing of Education of the Handicapped—Now when general school enrollments are decreasing and the public would like to keep costs from rising, special education is beginning to serve a new group of pupils whose programs are most costly. The need exists to study the costs of different types of special education and their economic benefits.
3. Delivery Systems: "Mainstreaming" Via the Least Restrictive Environment—The term "mainstreaming" with its varied meanings should well be replaced with the concept of "least restrictive environment." Delivery systems based on this concept offer placement on a continuum of services ranging from the least restrictive to the most restrictive environment. Individualization of educational plans is the key to educational placement.
4. Early Childhood Education—There is strong evidence that early stimulation and educational programing prevent

handicapping conditions of high risk infants as well as markedly reduce the number of children who will need intensive or long term help.

5. Educational Problems of the Severely Handicapped—The right to education mandate opens the doors for children and youth previously denied this opportunity. Education must evolve unique responses to its complicated problems and many challenges.
6. Career Education—Unemployment and underemployment of the handicapped place serious responsibilities on public education. The goal of career education is to help a handicapped individual earn a living, but also to help that person live a life. Career education programs must be continually developed which are aimed at accomplishing this goal.
7. Continuing Education—A process of lifelong instruction is needed to equip individuals of all ages and in all disability groups to succeed in our society, to achieve self fulfillment, and to live at the maximum level possible.
8. Personnel Requirements for the Education of the Handicapped—Special education services have always been maldistributed but never so obviously as now, with the court mandates that all children be served. Current forces and trends are fostering role changes for special education personnel and increasing participation in interdisciplinary team approaches. New training approaches are needed.
9. Research and Education for the Handicapped—Research in this area has only been vigorous for less than a decade. Currently, there exists little dissemination of research, few coordinated research plans designed to meet the educational needs of all the handicapped, and only the beginnings of national plans to systematically implement proven methods or technologies of education.
10. Public Information and Education—Negative attitudes can be traced to lack of information, misunderstanding, or apprehension about how to deal with handicapped people. Information must be presented in a sequential, meaningful fashion and disseminated in a systematic way.

Throughout the chapter, as each of the above topics is addressed, the reader will note the recurring themes of the importance and role of parent and family involvement and the implications of the right to education mandate. Barriers or problems impeding implementation are identified. Creative and positive solutions must be found and action taken to insure all persons of their educational rights now and in the future.

The Legal Right to Education

Establishing the Right

Only recently has it been established that handicapped school age children have the same rights as nonhandicapped students to a free, public, equal educational opportunity. The principal sources of this right have been a large number of state and federal court orders, which have been based on two premises: first, handicapped persons can learn and profit from training and education; and second, techniques and technologies exist which are believed to be appropriate for training and educating the handicapped.

These premises have been transformed into legal doctrines by court decisions, which have stated that excluding handicapped children and youth from school violates their rights to education under state constitutions, the equal protection clause of the 14th Amendment, or the due process clauses of the 5th and 14th Amendments. Accordingly, courts have variously ordered that:

1. No handicapped child may be excluded from education because of his handicap (the "zero reject" principle).
2. Schools have a duty to provide an equal educational opportunity to all handicapped students (the "mandatory education" principle).
3. The preferred educational placement of handicapped students is in the least restrictive environment program (the "mainstream" belief).
4. The handicapped child is entitled to education or training that is appropriate to his needs and conditions and is designed to

help him achieve his fullest potential (the "appropriate education" principle).

5. The child, his parents, and his guardian or a person acting as his parent (a "surrogate") are entitled to a hearing on any proposed special education placement before the placement is made (the "procedural due process" requirement).

Although litigation is the principal enforcer of this right, it is not the only source. Federal and state legislation also provides that handicapped persons have a right to education. This legislation often requires schools to comply with the principles of zero reject, mandatory education, placement in the least restrictive program, appropriate education, and procedural due process. It is also often accompanied by appropriations earmarked for special education. For example, Public Law 93-380 (the Education Amendments of 1974) and Public Law 94-142 (the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975) committed federal funds to the education of handicapped children and contained requirements of zero reject, least restrictive alternative placement, and procedural due process. By the same token, many states have recently enacted laws providing the same rights for handicapped students. Typically, federal and state guidelines, adopted by executive agencies, spell out in further detail how appropriations may be used and how the principles may be implemented.

None of the recent developments would have occurred without the vigorous and imaginative action of consumers and professionals committed to the education of handicapped people. They identified the sources of power and acted decisively to influence them. They brought lawsuits. They lobbied their state and federal legislative representatives. They entered into powerful alliances with state and federal agencies whose mission is the education of handicapped students. In short, they used each of the three available governmental processes and avenues of change.

Implementation and Monitoring

Consumers and professionals acted together to establish the right to education for all persons. Now the issues before those so concerned are the implementation of the right to education mandates and the monitoring of the actions of the schools.

The handicapped person's right to education is not yet fully implemented. The lack of manpower and financial resources and the reluctance of public school officials to comply enthusiastically with the legal requirements pose serious obstacles to making the right meaningful.

Implementation is made even more crucial because of the complexity of the problem—integrating all handicapped students into a system of free public education and providing them with appropriate training. It is already clear that further legislation, executive rule making, and litigation will be required before the right to education takes on substance for all handicapped children. Legislation, rule making, and litigation may all have to be used to create special programs, train competent educators, reallocate school dollars, provide early intervention programs, furnish compensatory training to adults, conduct child find activities of school age handicapped children, or prevent the use of discriminatory tests that lead to inappropriate school placements.

Monitoring the schools—making sure that they do as they are required to do—is an almost overwhelming task, one that surely will require resorting to the three avenues of change: third party monitoring, outcome oriented studies, and the cooperation of parents and other advocacy groups (e.g., centers on law for the handicapped) and school officials (e.g., professional associations of special educators). The resources of these groups, particularly their financial resources, are limited, which suggests that the monitoring process is likely to be more difficult than establishing the right to education or implementing it. However, all efforts should be made by the consumers and professionals to settle cases through the administrative levels before embarking on the route of the litigation process.

Promises of a Revolution

Finally, the right to education mandate promises to work a revolution both in public and private education in two major respects. First, the procedural due process requirement, coupled with the statutory requirement of Public Law 94-142 that each handicapped student have an "individualized" education plan prepared and carried out for him, will have schools functioning as child centered institutions and will make them accountable for their work. Second, implementing and monitoring the right to education will affect the schools themselves. The resulting administration, organization, financing, and furnishing of special education will have a profound effect on the training and roles of all educators and on the education of nonhandicapped persons as well, particularly in those situations in which handicapped and nonhandicapped individuals interact.

Financing of Education for the Handicapped

"Money does not educate children; teachers and other educational workers do. Spending money on education will not in itself guarantee that children will be educated, but it is certain that children cannot be educated without it." So said David Selden (1971), the then President of the American Federation of Teachers, in his testimony before a US Senate Select Committee investigating equal educational opportunity for every citizen of the United States.

Existing State Legislation

It is the states' responsibility to provide each individual with an appropriate and equitable education, and states are allowed freedom and autonomy in making their individual rules and regulations. In the 1960's most states had legislation merely permitting local programs for the handicapped. The typical state legislation made provisions only for children classified under traditional categories. By 1972, 41 states had changed their legislation into one of the following forms of mandatory law (Trudeau, 1972):

1. *Mandate by petition*—which means education is offered only when a substantial number of parents and advocates petition the school board.
2. *Selective mandate*—which discriminates among the exceptionalities, for example, mandating the provision of services to the emotionally disturbed but not to the learning disabled.
3. *Conditional mandate*—which stipulates that education for certain categories of children would be compulsory if certain conditions were met, for example, a requirement of at least 15 children of a certain category living within one school district.
4. *Planning mandate*—which requires that a state develop plans, possibly including a future deadline for serving its exceptional children.
5. *Full mandate*—which forbids the exclusion of any child regardless of the educational need ("zero reject").

By 1975, the number of states with mandatory laws had grown to 48, with an increase in the number of states having the full mandate (Bolick, 1975).

Despite this additional mandatory legislation and the wide array of legal action pointing toward the urgency of educating exceptional children, the US Office of Education estimates that only about 40% of the handicapped are currently receiving the assistance they need to have full equality of opportunity (Jones & Wilkerson, 1974). An analysis of state financing of services for the handicapped (Thomas, 1973a) has shown that the most frequently served individuals have often been those whose educational costs were lower than other handicapped groups. Further, strong legislation has generally only been carried out in the wealthier states. Thus it would appear that legal mandate alone is insufficient to guarantee programs for handicapped persons.

The Fiscal Implications of Federal Right to Education Legislation

The right to education for all persons now requires school systems to provide for additional exceptional students at a time when the general school enrollment is declining. Although the number of these "new" pupils to be served is low, the education of this particular population of handicapped students will be more costly than that of handicapped students already being served (Bernstein, Kirst, Hartman, & Marshall, 1976).

The previously unserved and underserved, who must now be provided an education, include the severely, profoundly, and multiply handicapped. The complexities of their handicaps require the employment of specialists, such as communication specialists, physical and occupational therapists, dieticians, and nutritionists. In addition to providing education, school agencies must also deliver related services such as prosthetic devices, adaptive transportation, equipment, and special teaching materials. Developing individualized plans and determining solutions for the unique problems of each individual will require multidisciplinary staff planning which will create additional costs. Also, school districts must now develop infant, preschool, and early intervention programs, and also programs aimed at persons needing education through at least the age of 21 (and in some states an even higher age).

One of the stipulations of Public Law 94-142 is that the student be educated in the least restrictive environment. Experience has shown that regular class placement with supporting services is not automatically less costly than educating children in self contained classrooms. Administrators must hire consulting teachers, methods and materials specialists, itinerant teachers, and resource teachers and must pay for inservice training of regular classroom teachers. Other examples of additional costs are the installation of special audiological equipment in any classroom which a hearing impaired student needs to attend or the installation of ramps or elevators in schools accommodating orthopedically handicapped students.

Methods of State Fiscal Support

The question now is not whether, but how, special educational services should be financed. There are six general categories of state fiscal support. These are intended to at least partially offset the additional costs incurred in educating some handicapped students. While the amount and distribution of the reimbursement varies from state to state, the following definitions supply the basic principles upon which the formulae are built and note the deficiencies inherent in each plan (Marinelli, 1976; Thomas, 1973b).

In the *unit financing* approach, school districts are reimbursed a fixed sum by the state for each designated unit of classroom instruction, transportation, administration, or ancillary service. The growth of units for particular special programs has been limited in the past to a certain percentage annually, which inhibits the development of new exceptional child programs. This has promoted the development of special classes and has made resource room programs or special assistance in the regular classroom extremely difficult to reimburse. Other problems have been encountered in using the unit system (Thomas, 1973b):

1. Maximization of class size to decrease per pupil cost.
2. Inability of small school districts to generate enough special education classroom units to qualify for units for classroom ancillary services and administration.
3. Nonreimbursement of higher costs during the first year of a program.
4. Lack of funding in most states for costs incurred in mainstreaming.
5. Inappropriate placement of children in a program with a lower per pupil expenditure when units are allocated for differing class size on the basis of a child's disability.
6. Same reimbursement for all programs regardless of cost and/or quality.

Some of these problems may be overcome by the establishment of statutory limits on class size or by a guarantee to each district of at least one classroom unit for each category of exceptionality or of a unit to be shared with another district. Districts may also share ancillary service, administrative, and supervisory units. The dollar amount allocated with new units could be greater for the first year only.

Through the *weighted formula* system, for each handicapped person a school district enrolls, it is reimbursed the cost of educating a nonhandicapped individual, multiplied by a predetermined factor. This factor may vary according to the type or degree of disability of the handicapped student. This method conceptually allows for the full cost of special education programs in the general state aid formula. The weighted formula system is limited in two respects: first, if the per pupil cost used is a state average, those districts with high educational costs will not receive equitable reimbrusement; and second, the system assumes that all individuals in a given disability group will require the same amount of funding.

With the *percentage reimbursement* system, a percentage of all costs (sometimes the entire cost) incurred by school districts in educating handicapped individuals is funded by the state. Assuming that all costs may be accounted for, it overcomes some of the programing problems encountered in the previous methods. However, several drawbacks have been noted.

Since per pupil program costs vary, it will be less expensive to educate a child in one categorical program by using one delivery system than it will be using another. Thus, if the percentage that is reimbursed is low, a school district may still find its outlay in certain programs excessive. This will lead to inappropriate placements. From a state level viewpoint, without a per pupil expenditure cap, it would appear that the total allocated state dollars could be unlimited. However, the level of state appropriations necessarily sets a limit, and those funds are prorated on the basis of the percentage reimbursement formula.

In a *reimbursement by personnel* approach, the state pays for any special staff costs that are incurred by a school district offering programs for handicapped persons. The outlook for mainstreaming using this method of financing is not optimistic, since mainstreaming requires the presence of the exceptional child in the regular education program to the extent appropriate and those costs are not paid by the state when a child is counted either as an exceptional or normal child. Further, it encourages large class sizes to decrease per pupil expenditure.

In the *straight sum reimbursement* system, a set amount of money is distributed from the state to the school district for each handicapped child placed in an approved program. This has an advantage for local education agencies over the unit pattern since no set minimum number of served children is required before state monies are distributed. Straight sum reimbursements often have little relationship to realistic program costs. As with other patterns, there is a tendency to label children for fiscal advantages and maximize the size of classes.

School districts using an *excess cost formula* determine the per pupil cost of educating a handicapped child and then subtract from this amount the cost of educating a nonhandicapped child in the same district. The difference or excess is then reimbursed by the state.

Difficulty is encountered in determining just what is excess cost and ensuring comparability between districts. Standardization between districts requires a common program cost and element format and accounting procedures necessary to calculate excess cost. Of special concern must be the problem of separating out the cost of educating exceptional children provided for in mainstreamed settings. Also of concern is the allocation or proration of indirect costs.

If state regulations contain imprecise definitions of exceptional conditions, there will be great variability between districts in the manner of determining a child's eligibility for special education services. This will lead to the improper labeling of children and a financial advantage or disadvantage for some districts.

The excess cost formula can be funded by basing it on (a) state guidelines to determine actual allowances, (b) average excess costs of the preceding year in a sample of exemplary districts, or (c) state guaranteed (foundation) level of support for the current year.

Special Factors Adding to Costs

While concerns of programing, cost, funding, and management cut across all special education services, certain geographic locations or particular populations have unique problems due to an unusually high proportion of individuals having special needs. For example, the military assigns personnel with dependent handicapped children to installations in areas where educational programs for the handicapped are available (the "compassionate transfer program"). Consequently, the enrollment in these programs exceeds the expected enrollment (according to prevalence estimates) and adds greater financial burdens to the school districts involved (Jones & Wilkerson, 1974).

A child's handicapping condition is rarely confined to academic concerns: it also affects the child's parents, his relationship with peers, and the coordination of efforts on his behalf among nonschool agencies. For this reason, a comprehensive special education program within the public schools should include elements of a noneducational nature, such as infant screening and identification, parent counseling, and liaison with medical and mental health services, university clinics, residential institutions, and other private and community agencies (McLure, Burnham, & Henderson, 1975). The costs of these services have not traditionally been part of school budgets.

Public Attitudes and Accountability

The public attitude, despite the wishes of many of those directly concerned, is that costs shall not rise. There is the question of whether the handicapped, particularly the severely handicapped, should receive high expeditures of monies because they may not have the potential to benefit from such expeditures. Such thoughts do indeed exist and are sometimes expressed publicly even though the meaning may be disguised behind other language (Sherr, 1976).

However, reflecting the increased scope of available services, state and local outlays for special education in most states have expanded two to three times over the 1972 levels (Wilken & Callahan, 1975). Public decision makers, because of the public attitude toward costs (though not necessarily toward the education of handicapped persons), are growing increasingly uneasy with spiraling costs of special education (Yates, 1975). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that these decision makers will require greater accountability on how funds are delivered and expended, how well the program objectives are met, and how beneficial the results seem.

Delivery Systems—Mainstreaming Via the Least Restrictive Environment

"Mainstreaming" is a recent term that is used frequently and in different ways when talking about the delivery of educational services to exceptional persons. Like many new expressions, mainstreaming soon took on a variety of meanings, resulting in confusion over definition. Although the specific, precise meaning may vary greatly, a common element in its use is the concept that each exceptional pupil should be educated in the "least restrictive environment."

Jerry Caster in the November 1975 issue of *Exceptional Children* provided the following basic guidelines for an understanding of the intent of mainstreaming. According to Caster, *Mainstreaming is:*

- The provision of the most appropriate education for each individual in the least restrictive setting.
- A focus on the educational needs of individuals instead of clinical or diagnostic labels such as mentally handicapped, learning disabled, physically handicapped, hearing impaired, or gifted.
- The creation of alternatives to help general educators serve individuals with learning or adjustment problems in the regular educational setting. (Some approaches being used to help achieve this are consulting teachers, methods and materials specialists, itinerant teachers, and resource teachers.)
- The uniting of the skills of general education and special education so that all individuals can have an equal educational opportunity.

Further, he pointed out that *mainstreaming is not:*

- The wholesale return of all exceptional children in special classes to regular classes.
- A means of permitting those students with special needs to remain in regular classrooms without the support services they need.
- An approach that ignores the fact that some students need a more specialized program than can be provided in the general education program.
- A less costly system for serving the handicapped than special self contained classrooms.

In formal session April, 1976, the Delegate Assembly of The Council for Exceptional Children officially adopted the following definition on mainstreaming:

> Mainstreaming is a belief which involves an educational placement procedure and process for exceptional children, based on the conviction that each such child should be educated in the least restrictive environment in which his educational and related needs can be satisfactorily provided. This concept recognizes that exceptional children have a wide range of special educational needs, varying greatly in intensity and duration; that there is a recognized continuum of educational settings which may, at a given time, be appropriate for an individual child's needs; that to the maximum extent appropriate, exceptional children should be educated with non-exceptional children; and that special classes, separate schooling, or other removal of an exceptional child from education with non-exceptional children should occur only when the intensity of the child's special education and related needs is such that they cannot be satisfied in an environment including non-exceptional children, even with the provision of supplementary aids and services.

Least Restrictive Environment

Delivery systems employing the least restrictive environment concept must focus on a full continuum of services. Educational environments are viewed along a continuum of physical and social restrictiveness from placement in a regular classroom with nonhandicapped peers to placement in a more restrictive setting such as a special class (on a full or part time basis), a special school, a group home, or a residential institution.

Exceptional persons have a wide range of special educational and related needs that vary greatly in intensity and duration. Given this diverse range of needs, both specialized and generic delivery systems are necessary. However, to the maximum extent appropriate, handicapped students should be educated with nonhandicapped students. Placement in special classes, separate schooling, or other removal from education with nonhandicapped students should occur only when the intensity of the student's educational and related needs is such that they cannot be satisfactorily provided for in regular programs, even with the use of supplementary aids and services.

Special Services That Support the Delivery System

To support any instructional delivery system there must be an array of special services. These include all types of services necessary for comprehensive education of a pupil. As teachers individualize instruction for pupils, and as schools provide more instructional services for individual pupils, there must be an effective system for delivery of special information and materials to teachers and pupils. Other special services include special transportation, special seats, electronic communications equipment, counseling and guidance, and a variety of consultative services (Partridge, 1976).

Parent Involvement

The recent state and federal court actions insuring the basic rights of parents will affect the delivery service to their children. It has now been established that:

- Parents should be informed about educational provisions for handicapped students available to them.
- Parents have the right to appeal a decision that would alter their child's educational program.
- Parents have the right to review and use in their appeal all information used by the school to make the decision.
- Parents have the right to have a neutral party decide on the most appropriate program for their child.
- Parents have the right to have the benefits of a special program specified and evaluated.

An essential element of any delivery system is parental involvement. Parents may be more appropriate trainers of very young persons than educators outside the home. In addition, parent training programs may be less expensive than educational centers. The participation of parents in educational staffings helps insure that the legal rights of the child or youth are protected. Such participation also offers the opportunity to establish a positive relationship between the program and the home.

There are numerous other reasons to involve parents in their child's educational input (Shearer & Shearer, 1976):

1. Parents are, in some cases, the most appropriate trainers/educators.
2. Parents are the consumer; either directly or indirectly they pay for the program and service their child is receiving.
3. If knowledgeable about the program, parents can be the best advocates for it.
4. Parents of a handicapped child will have more responsibility for their child over a significantly longer period of time than parents of a nonhandicapped child. They need parenting and teaching skills in addition to those needed by parents of nonhandicapped students.
5. Parents know their child better than anyone else and can serve as a vital resource to program staff.

Delivery Systems for All Children

The mandate to provide the education of all children regardless of handicapping conditions is here, and every school system must accept each child as its legitimate educational concern. Statements of exclusion must be eliminated. "A different climate is reached when it is assumed that all children are capable of being educated than when it is assumed that just some children have this capability" (Bertness, 1976).

A school system, which, almost 18 years ago, successfully adopted the position of including children with handicaps as opposed to excluding them, offers some statements on the issue:

- Education of exceptional students should be an integral part of the total program of public education.
- Programs should emphasize similarities of exceptional children to other children.
- A concern for the education of exceptional children seems to demand a concern for all children.
- An exceptional student's education plan draws increasingly on the general public education resources as he becomes master of his exceptionality.
- Provisions for handicapped students must be made in all remodeling and new construction.
- The philosophy and elements of the program should be stressed in personnel recruitment, since not all educators have the same convictions.
- The advantages of the program will need to be explained and sold continuously as community and staff memberships change.

"When we work seriously with all children, we accept them with the characteristics they possess rather than some characteristics we might hope exist. A school, therefore, becomes a complex, dynamic place, loaded with many varied programs responding to the great variety of multiple and changing pupil characteristics. It is not enough to say we believe in education for all children, we must demonstrate the belief through actions" (Bertness, 1976).

Early Childhood Education

No one is sure of the exact number of handicapped children and youth in the United States today. This is particularly true of children under 6 years of age, but the usual estimate for this group is about 1 million. No matter what the number, there is ample evidence that the number could be reduced through proper education.

Major longitudinal studies now offer evidence that high risk infants can achieve adequate school success when favorable social climate and positive parenting techniques are used (Werner et al., 1971). Equally supportive of the need for early stimulation is the evidence that, when infants who suffer perinatal stress are not offered early training, all of these children are classified as handicapped by the age of 10 (Werner et al., 1971).

Factors Contributing to the Number of Handicapped

The United States ranks 14th in infant mortality, behind 13 other industrialized nations (DeWeerd, 1976). The mortality rate is higher among poverty groups, which suffer from poor housing, inadequate medical services, and malnutrition. There are also a high number of handicapped children who reside in low income families. According to the Census Bureau, 14.2% of all children, or one out of seven, was living in poverty in 1973 (Bureau of the Census, 1976). A family's level of income affects the environmental conditions of a child's life. The quality of these inputs, such as the food consumed, affect a child's growth and development. Deprivations imposed through undernourishment (often a result of poverty) produce deficits in the brain cells as well as structural and functional distortions in growth (Dobbing, 1975).

Another indication of the problem is a study conducted in 1970 and 1971 by doctors in Washington, D.C. (DeWeerd, 1976). On a representative sample 1,436 families with children between 6 months and 11 years, it was found that 26% of the children between 1 month and 3 years had iron deficiency anemia, 26% had uncorrected or inadequately corrected visual disorders, and 18% suffered from partial hearing loss with nearly another 13% having ear infections that could lead to hearing loss. These children came from all socioeconomic levels and were receiving health care. The doctors making the study felt the situation was probably no different in other cities. Add to this picture the increased prevalence of single parent families, child abuse, and economic distress, and it puts the child, and particularly a handicapped child, in a most vulnerable position.

There is ample evidence, however, that programs that provide for early stimulation and educational programing to meet the critical needs of young handicapped children and their families are reducing the number of children who will need intensive or long term help

(Haring, 1976; Karnes, 1973). Some of the major factors remediating handicapping conditions are the techniques the caretaker uses to work with the infant. The most effective programs with infants include specific training of the child's caretaker. The importance of reaching handicapped children early and working to help them reach their full potential cannot be overstressed. Without early help these children are, in many cases, lost. With help, they can prosper and often reach a potential one could not have dreamed of years ago (DeWeerd, 1976).

Federal Impetus to Finding and Serving the Young Handicapped Child

Currently, only about 40% of school aged handicapped children receive appropriate specialized educational services. The estimate for preschool children is only about 25%.

Recent court rulings and new legislation, however, are helping to move forward the goal of full services. Public Law 94-142 requires states to provide education to all handicapped children between the ages of 3 and 21 by 1980 (with the reservation that states not offering programs to nonhandicapped individuals between the ages of 3 to 5 and 18 to 21 are permitted, though not required, to provide educational services to handicapped individuals in those age groups).

Another good example of recent developments is the Handicapped Children's Early Education Program, generally known as the "First Chance" program. Administered by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped, the program grew from 24 initial projects with $1 million appropriation in 1969-1970 to a projected $22 million for about 200 projects in 1975-1976. The purpose of the First Chance program is to develop demonstration projects. These serve as models for public schools and other agencies who need information on how to provide a variety of kinds of special help for handicapped children and their families.

In a review of the First Chance Projects, Karnes and Zehrbach (1976) identified four major delivery systems used in the programs for young handicapped children: the home based system; the home followed by center; the home and center based system; and the center based system. Home based systems are those programs that are delivered entirely in the home. The parents are generally viewed as the primary change agents, but in a few programs professionals or paraprofessionals provide tutoring or direct teaching. Many home based programs, which begin with children under 3 years old, continue as center based programs after the children are over 3 years of age. Other programs combine both the center and home approaches. The children usually attend a program delivered primarily in a center, and the parents are trained at home to deliver the program. These programs are characterized by frequent staff visits to the homes and cooperative planning to coordinate center and home activities. In strictly center based programs, the emphasis is on teaching parents at the center. Carryover to the home is encouraged, but in many instances only infrequent visits are made to homes by the staff. These center based programs tend to be for the older preschool child and/or the more severely handicapped child who can benefit from special equipment and highly trained personnel. Many of these systems involve the use of categorical grouping but there is an increasing emphasis on the inclusion of handicapped children in programs with nonhandicapped children.

Major Problems in Early Childhood Education

Now that the federal government has encouraged early education of the handicapped through legislation and funding, several critical issues need to be considered. Each handicapped child in the state aged 3 to 5 who is counted as served will generate a special $300 entitlement. This should tend to alleviate some of the additional costs that preschool programs for the handicapped incur. For example, in an analysis of programs in Bloomington, Illinois, the amount of extra cost per handicapped preschool pupil was $3,005, or 4.22 times the cost per elementary regular pupil (McLure, Burnham, & Henderson, 1975, p. 14).

Timing of services. Mandatory assessment and identification of handicapping or potentially handicapping conditions should begin at birth or shortly thereafter. As a followup, "mandatory infant learning programs, based on demonstration center programs, should be available to begin developmental intervention for the child" (Sontag, 1975). "The earlier, the better" seems to be a safe maxim, especially for multiply handicapped children since the need for early stimulation is so great.

By providing appropriate learning experiences starting in early infancy and by continuing these experiences throughout the preschool years, it is possible to take advantage of critical or optimal learning periods (Horowitz & Paden, 1973). These may be thought of as developmental intervals when a child may be most able to learn certain skills. Also through early intervention, the cumulative and compounding effects of deficits can be reduced, even avoided in many cases. The very first approximations to appropriate developmental responses can be noted and built upon. If the child's environment is devoid of stimulation or filled with stimulation too complex for the child to process, the development of bizarre responses is inevitable. The most severely handicapped child is learning all of the time—learning good responses or poor ones, or learning not to respond at all.

Child find activities. In October 1974, the National Association of Directors of Special Education conducted a national survey to identify those child find systems currently operating in the states. Of the 26 state programs identified, 13 reported that their target populations for child find included the preschool age child (*Child Find*, 1975, p. 60). Current federal legislation stipulates that state departments of education must develop plans to assure extensive child identification procedures.

Family involvement. The firsthand involvement of parents in the teaching of their handicapped child is important if the child is to learn to function in his everyday environment. To be maximally effective, parent and infant training should start shortly after birth. In one of the model First Chance programs, the parent and infant come in together starting 3 to 5 weeks after the birth of the handicapped child. During each weekly session, the infant's progress is reviewed in terms of motor, cognitive, and social development; remedial exercises and training procedures are demonstrated; and the parents are taught to continue the program at home for the ensuing 7 days (Dmitriev, 1974).

Other examples of family involvement developed and practiced in the First Chance programs include participation of the parent as an administrator, disseminator, staff member, primary teacher, recruiter of children, curriculum developer, counselor, assessor of skills, and evaluator and record keeper (Shearer & Shearer, 1976).

It must be remembered that being the parents of a handicapped child is a responsibility that taxes family members physically, emotionally, and financially. A parent of an autistic child suggested that parents of handicapped children "burn out"—so much is demanded of them in simply meeting the everyday needs of the child and the family that they have no energies left over for carrying out teaching programs (Sullivan, 1976).

If families are to be involved in providing their handicapped infants and children with good developmental learning experiences that run concurrently and complementarily to the preschool program, then families must be provided with a range of supporting and respite services: trained sitters to allow the rest of the family opportunities to do things together; housekeeping and even laundry assistance in the case of incontinent or bedridden children; a variety of flexible day care facilities; and live in facilities where a handicapped child may stay for a few days at a time during a family crisis or family holiday.

It is unrealistic to expect young handicapped children to develop at their best possible rate if parents, siblings, and peers are not involved in their education. Yet it is equally unrealistic to expect such involvement unless parents are provided, from the start, with various kinds of relief and assistance.

Handicapped/nonhandicapped mixes. The coeducation of the handicapped with the nonhandicapped is desirable if it is in the best interests of the handicapped person. This arrangement is especially important for very young children. They should be enrolled in the least restrictive preschool environment as close as possible geographically to their own family and community setting. The first 6 years are the years when the basic social, cognitive, and motor skills are most likely to develop. These emerging skills have a greater chance of resembling those of the normally developing child if the handicapped child can be in an integrated preschool setting. Most handicapped young children, even the severely handicapped, can be successfully integrated without undue strain on the program (Gold, B., 1975). Certainly, for the majority of handicapped children, it is not necessary to radically redesign the environment (Allen, 1975); however, if new facilities are on the drawing board, the omission of certain architectural barriers and the selection of developmentally appropriate design, furnishings, and equipment would make it a more desir-

able facility for all young children, handicapped or otherwise.

Staff. Radical redesign of preschool staffing patterns is not necessary either, although the number of handicapped children and the severity of their handicapping condition must, of course, be taken into account. One adult for every 3 to 5 children is usually a comfortable ratio (Moore, undated).

What is more important, though, is the quality of attention that is provided. The staff should be composed of teachers and aides who understand developmental processes and individual differences, who can program for each minute step taken by the handicapped child, who can deal with biological and behavioral dysfunctioning, and who can work as reciprocating members of an interdisciplinary team. Many authorities recommend that all teachers of young children have as a part of their training, opportunities for firsthand practical interactions with physical and occupational therapists, nutritionists, communication specialists, psychologists, and specialists in other disciplines related to the developing child (Allen, Holm, & Schiefelbusch, in press; Bricker, 1976; Connor, 1975).

Curriculum. There are a number of sound and well tested preschool curriculum guides and models available for use with young handicapped children (e.g., Harbin & Cross, 1975; Hart, 1974; Myers, Sinco, & Stalma, 1973; Schattner, 1971; and Shearer, 1972). Research has not identified any one curriculum approach as being superior to any other, but there are certain components that set successful programs apart from unsuccessful ones. These components include a commitment of the staff to a given approach, a high adult to child ratio (1 to 3 for handicapped children), concurrent inservice training, attention to individual differences, strong emphasis on language development and cognition, involvement of staff in curriculum development, broadly based curricula that foster the development of the total child, family involvement, and appropriate instructional materials and equipment (Karnes, 1973).

In selecting an appropriate preschool curriculum it is important to choose one that allows each child to become actively involved in a wide range of enjoyable activities that provide him with the appropriate sensory and social feedback. The curriculum must also plan for the acquisition of a variety of specific skills. The self help skills are especially important since handicapped children cannot survive without them in any but the most restricted environment. On the other hand, the teaching of self help skills should not dominate the program; there must be equal emphasis on the acquisition of other basic communication and developmental skills and provision for activities that relate the various developmental areas. To accomplish this, the handicapped child must be provided with those experiences basic to learning for all children, but which he is not likely to encounter:

1. He must be given many opportunities to explore the environment since he will probably be deprived in several areas of sensory stimulation.
2. He must be provided a strong physical education component.
3. He must have a structured program of play activities with peers which recognizes that the most rudimentary of play behaviors will need to be taught.
4. He must be supplied with an intensive and carefully sequenced communication program built upon even the most remote of first approximations to preverbal communication responses.

Evaluation. Every early childhood education program must contain systematic procedures for observing, recording, and reporting child and group progress. Only by keeping such records can there be useful feedback for teachers and family, improved staff communication and relationships, and accurate information upon which to plan and make valid decisions for each child and for the group as a whole.

The Critical Early Years

The early years are truly the years of educational payoff. Today's severely handicapped infants, toddlers, and preschoolers need not fit that category 5 or 10 years from now; being handicapped does *not* imply a static condition, but rather a developmental process much like growth itself. Through the specialized assistance in a dynamic rather than a static learning environment, young handicapped children are provided the opportunity to attain their full potential.

Educational Problems of the Severely Handicapped

Any discussion of the educational problems of severely handicapped persons must begin with the recognition that many of these problems and needs are *not* unique. For instance, severely handicapped persons, like nonhandicapped persons, have the right to an education and need that education to be individually and appropriately tailored. Severely handicapped persons are not unique in needing positive responses from others—affection and attention—within and outside the educational setting. They are not unique in needing barrier-free access to education, with removal of attitudinal barriers as well as the more obvious physical ones. Severely handicapped students are like other students in needing opportunities to explore the natural and manmade environment and, through education, to acquire the skills that make such explorations meaningful and enjoyable. Severely handicapped students are not unique in needing to participate in social relationships and activities, both in and out of school. They need to interact with nonhandicapped persons who can "model" certain kinds of behavior for them to learn. Handicapped persons need all of these experiences in an environment where differences are reduced and mutual tolerance—and appreciation—is increased.

The term "severely handicapped" as used here refers to persons who have multiple impairments or impairments of such severity that they require extraordinary assistance in educational and other life situations. Included in this group are persons who have spent the major portion of their lives in public institutions and who are now being placed in the community. Many of these persons have had no education and pose special problems to local educational systems.

By definition, the impairments of severely handicapped people have more intense and pervasive effects; their problems are more complicated than are those of mildly or moderately handicapped persons. Yet whether one can say with assurance that these problems are so qualitatively different as to be unique or that, instead, they are merely exaggerated versions of other problems, is a moot point. Rather, precisely because the problems are complicated and present so many challenges, educators are evolving unique responses. Moreover, educators alone are responsible for devising these strategies, adaptations, modifications, and procedures; no other professional group has been told in a legislative mandate to turn around decades of neglect and mismanagement of this population. The leadership exerted by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (HEW) has greatly facilitated development of these responses.

Factors Influencing the Design of Educational Strategies

When federal legislation, Public Law 94-142, is fully implemented, the country's severely handicapped children and youth will achieve full realization of their right to an education, a right traditionally denied rather than granted. For educators the legislation is also promising because it affords opportunities to observe students, collect information, increase understanding, and sharpen skills related to teaching a population that is new to the classroom. We need to keep reminding ourselves that management of severely handicapped persons has only recently become an educational rather than merely a custodial concern.

The following are some of the factors now taken into account as both pupils and teachers reap the benefits of the legislative mandate.

Early recognition of handicaps. Most severely handicapped children can be recognized as severely handicapped shortly after birth. The full extent of their impairments may not be known for some time, and prognostic statements may have to wait for extended information collection. However, these persons *can* be identified in early infancy and be referred immediately to appropriate educational and other services.

Early provision of services. The earliest possible referral to services is urgent. It is now clear that the earlier individualized educational planning begins, the greater will be the gains students make in performing all skills. The most effective time to start educating severely handicapped persons is at birth, and the benefits of starting this intervention early accrue not only to the infant but to parents as well.

Probability of multiple problems. Severely handicapped persons are likely to have multiple problems that require the input of special-

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ists from several disciplines in the classroom. The mode of delivery should not be a critical problem for the school age child. Classroom teachers can, in some cases, be trained to deliver some services traditionally offered by other specialists; at other times, the specialists will perform these interdisciplinary services. What is crucial, however, is that this input be available and that it be integrated into the classroom program. At the very least, the following specialists (representing several disciplines) must be intensively involved in education and planning for severely handicapped children: medical specialists, language and communication disorders specialists, developmental specialists (e.g., occupational or physical therapists), and family, home, and community specialists.

Need for lifelong attention. Severely handicapped persons are likely to have problems that require lifelong attention from others. It was pointed out earlier that educational intervention should begin for these persons at birth. The continuation of that statement is that educators must be involved in planning and coordinating the comprehensive, lifelong management of severely handicapped persons. Schools represent a community based organization with the facilities and resources to perform these functions intelligently, with minimal administrative shuffling.

New skills needed by educators. Educators of severely handicapped persons require specialized training because they need many new skills. The skills fall into at least four categories.

The first category concerns the precise, systematic arrangement and presentation of instructional cues. Early attempts to educate severely handicapped students failed because they began with instructional steps that were too broadly defined. Expectations were too high at the beginning of the instructional sequence, and there was disappointment when the pupils failed to "cope" with those steps. Learning steps must be sliced more "finely"—what were formerly considered beginning skills may in fact be the end product of many prerequisite skills. Current educational technology permits teachers to analyze the skill they will be teaching so closely that they can break it into as many components as are necessary for teaching that skill to any child.

The second category of new skills is that concerned with competence in new subject matter. If educational intervention for severely handicapped persons must begin early, the "curriculum" will be different from traditional school programs. The instruction will include skills or behaviors that occur in infancy: the most basic self help skills, the earliest motor and cognitive skills, and so on. What is important to remember, however, is that these skills may often be part of the curriculum for older children who have not participated in an educational program before. For them, too, the teacher will need to teach such basic skills as making eye contact and using muscles that have not been trained. This represents a significant departure from conventional topics for most public school teachers.

The third category of skills deals with data collection and measurement. Because education for severely handicapped persons is such a new concept, there is little reliable information about what severely handicapped persons can in fact learn. Further, there are no standardized curricula or teaching procedures that have been adequately tested under controlled conditions. For these reasons, it is urgent that teachers know how to collect measurement information about student performance and how to analyze this information with a view toward improving instruction. The most basic considerations are whether or not a pupil is making progress and whether or not an instructional program is working. There is no way to guess at the answers to these crucial questions.

The fourth category of skills is in the area of working with other specialists and working with parents. Several conventional practices are being abandoned as teachers instruct severely handicapped pupils. The traditional "boundaries" once protected by different disciplines are now being crossed. This is happening for reasons that have been discussed earlier: the problems are simply too complex to permit narrow, fragmented attacks on them. Also, the practice of having parents at school only for PTA meetings or scheduled conferences is giving way to a much more intensive and meaningful involvement by parents in the management of the various aspects of their children's education. With training by teachers, parents can increase their competencies and can continue at home the instructional programing begun in school. That carryover is critical for severely handicapped pupils. What is implicit in all of the above is that teachers must now have skills for working with adults, who may be as new to classroom involvement as is the new population of students.

Support for parents. Professionals need to offer support and training to parents from the moment the severely handicapped child is identified. Particularly during the crucial early months of a child's life, when the parents are struggling to accept the child's impairments and are facing so many problems, a total support system is needed, the kind of support that encourages the parents to look positively at what they *can* do for their child. Keeping a child at home is no easy matter. Parent training thus becomes an essential part of the total planning for severely handicapped children. An untrained, unprepared parent can easily become overwhelmed and decide to place the child in an institution in spite of tremendous ambivalence about such a decision. It is critical that arrangements be made for continuing assistance, for respite care, for information dissemination (for instance, newsletters such as *Closer Look*, published by the National Information Center for the Handicapped, Washington, D.C.), and for other aspects of a long term support system.

Focusing on society's goals. Educators need to participate in sorting out society's goals for severely handicapped persons. Society has never articulated—or been forced to articulate—*positive* goals for the severely handicapped. Of course, one can infer earlier negative goals: Severely handicapped persons were to be isolated from society, stored in institutions. That is no longer legally or morally defensible. Society's goals are emphasized here precisely because schools are social institutions whose purposes usually are decreed by the particular society. Schools are thought of as the places where students receive an apprenticeship for full participation in adult society. Educators are now looking critically at what is being done to prepare these new students for that role. Vocational training, like education, has been generally withheld from severely handicapped persons. Yet recent experiments with training young adults (Bellamy, Peterson, & Close, 1975; Gold, M.W., 1972, 1975; Mithaug, 1976) have shown that positive results can be achieved—that most severely handicapped persons can perform tasks or provide services that are marketable in modern industry. These results also indicate that curriculum planning must introduce prevocational training early in a person's education.

Changing Community Attitudes

It is insufficient to speak of particular factors affecting educational planning or even of something so global as a society's goals. What underlies everything discussed here is the necessity of a basic change in community attitudes toward a population that is usually hidden from view. It is virtually impossible to plan a community based intervention—including alternative living arrangements, comprehensive lifelong support systems and management, or even help to parents—without a fundamental willingness to reverse old attitudes and to open the community to handicapped persons. That means many different accommodations. Physical and architectural changes are needed to make community resources accessible, something so simple as modifying a telephone booth, for instance. Psychological accommodations are required so that severely handicapped persons (who may look and act differently than other people) are welcomed kindly and intelligently in the community's meeting and business places and are helped wherever necessary in using its resources and recreational facilities. Design of community facilities should be as "normal" as possible to minimize stigma and isolation.

The way to change a community's attitudes is to keep severely handicapped people *in* the community and to demonstrate the effectiveness of education in enabling these persons to function well. Success generates more success.

But one final note—for some people, the very success of severely handicapped persons as they become integrated into the life of a community may be as disturbing as is their presence there. Competent functioning of this kind startles some people; it upsets their biases and stereotyped views of "the" handicapped. The point is, simply, that changing attitudes is the most difficult and complex problem of all—and it is the one most in need of solving.

Career education is an area of study within the total school curriculum that is concerned with the future occupation of the individual. In the past decade, career education for handicapped persons has been a topic of concern but not of significant action. In a 1973 paper, C. Samuel Barone presented the following data about the approximately two and a half million handicapped youth leaving the school systems in the 4 years to come. About 525,000 (21%) will either be fully employed or be enrolled in college; 1 million (40%) will be underemployed and at the poverty level; 200,000 (8%) will be in their home communities and idle much of the time; 650,000 (26%) will be unemployed and on welfare; and 75,000 (3%) will be totally dependent and institutionalized. Such predictions raise grave concerns both for those who are involved in career education and those who are interested in the welfare of the handicapped.

The prediction that 1 million young handicapped persons will be underemployed is particularly serious, for underemployment means that the person possesses a greater degree of productive capacity than his or her present task demands. To predict that this will be the fate of 2 out of every 5 handicapped persons leaving the school system can only be considered as a serious indictment both of the educational system and of the larger society. For too long society has assumed that a handicapped person should be both pleased with and grateful for any kind of work society provided; that for a handicapped person, boredom on the job is impossible; that while most persons have a right to seek work compatible with their interests and aptitudes, such considerations do not apply to the employment of handicapped persons.

Career Education for the Handicapped

Although fundamental principles of career education are common to all citizens, handicapped citizens both contribute and need some distinctive shifts in emphasis. Career education's emphasis on strengths and assets, its refusal to emphasize failures and shortcomings, and its avoidance of diagnostic labels and stereotypes seem to hold a positive potential for handicapped persons who all too often are made well aware of their limitations and in the process are limited in discovering their talents.

The diversity of skills and differing capacities for independent functioning found in the general population is even greater in the handicapped population. Some individuals who have severe and/or multiple handicaps will be limited in the kind of activity and in the degree of personal independence possible to them. The responsibility of public education is to provide experiences and to organize these experiences in such a way that they are relevant, meaningful, and appropriate.

While some entry level skills for some handicapped individuals are stressed in the vocational aspect of career education, the focus should be on personal skills, work attitudes, and flexible work habits so that an individual can be fairly readily retrained or can adjust to the constantly changing occupational market. For selected handicapped students at the secondary level and all handicapped individuals at the postsecondary level, the development of technical skills is an important prerequisite for job entry. For handicapped individuals, such preparation may enable them to practice a profession, to be employed in a sheltered workshop, or to take care of their basic needs in the home.

The Scope and Goals of Career Education

Kenneth Hoyt, Associate Commissioner for Career Education in the US Office of Education, has indicated that "career education is the total effort of public education and the community to help all individuals become familiar with the values of work-oriented society, to integrate these values into their personal value systems, and to implement those values in their lives in such a way that work becomes possible, meaningful, and satisfying to each individual" (Hoyt, Evans, Mackin, & Margum, 1974). In Hoyt's framework and in most of the literature concerning career education, "work" is defined as a conscious effort to produce benefits for oneself and/or others. Both paid work and unpaid work are included in this concept, which speaks to the need of all persons to be productive as well as to find meaning in their lives through their own accomplishments.

In further exploring the concept of career education, some premises common to both handicapped and nonhandicapped persons emerge:

- Since both "career" and "education" span preschool through retirement, career education must also span the entire life cycle.
- The concept of productivity (including both paid and unpaid activities) is central to the definition of work and career education. Thus work includes the activities of the student, the homemaker, and the volunteer.
- The degree of independence an individual can exercise and the degree of his/her skill in terms of vocational or occupational activities varies; the goal of career education is to assist each individual in achieving the optimum.
- Career education extends that which students are asked to learn at school to the world of work. Basic academic skills, a meaningful set of work values, and good work habits represent adaptability tools needed by all persons who choose to work in today's society. A basic principle of career education is the emphasis on a person's successes, accomplishments, and attainments, not on failures or shortcomings.
- Career education provides individuals with skills and concepts and a concept of themselves, so that they can more readily cope with change and modification. Sidney Marland (1971) defined career education as a "broader understanding of the purposes of education in today's highly sophisticated, technical, change-oriented society."
- Studies have established that most individuals will experience three to five fairly significant occupational shifts in their lifetimes. One of the responsibilities of the educational system is to help provide the readiness for coping with such changes. Career education thus helps society support individuals in getting and finding other necessary or desirable employment and in securing appropriate training or retraining.

Agents of Career Education

While education bears a mandated responsibility for career education of the handicapped, other parts of society have particular and valuable contributions to make.

The business community. The business/labor/industry sector of our community is an integral part of career education. Some of the contributions that this sector can offer include providing work experience and work-study opportunities for students and for those who educate the students (teachers, counselors, and school administrators); serving as career development resource personnel to teachers, counselors, and students; and participating in part time and full time job placement programs, in career education policy formulation, and in curriculum development.

Career education programs that merge education and the world of work in a practical sense help to minimize misinformation, unfounded fear, and reticence on the part of employers. When employers are involved in the curriculum development of career education programs and when they are working with students in school and in their places of employment, they begin to deal with individuals and are less likely to categorize the handicapped or to generalize about their career potential.

Family. The attitude of the family is most significant in the career development of the handicapped. Because of a greater sense of his special physical, emotional, or intellectual needs, the handicapped person often is treated by his family as a very dependent individual. Family expectations for the handicapped individual frequently are significantly lower than his ability would allow. Moreover, parental attitudes toward work and toward education are powerful influences on the career development of all children. Career education programs for the handicapped must work to modify such attitudes through information and other experiences.

Counseling and guidance profession. The attention to the needs of special populations and particularly the area of the handicapped has been noted by the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education. In their sixth annual report (1975) they recommended that increased resources be made available to special populations: "Special populations are in need of improved quality and quantity of career guidance and counseling services." They also noted that employment service and vocational rehabilitation counselors are evaluated in terms of number of cases closed rather than quality of service provided, and they recommended that steps be taken to modify this practice.

The American Personnel and Guidance Association's Board of Directors at its meeting in December 1974 adopted a position paper on career guidance and the role and functions of the guidance and personnel practitioner in relation to career education. The paper identified seven functions appropriate to the career guidance practitioner in behalf of furthering career education: serving as liaison between educational and community resource groups; conducting career guidance needs assessment surveys; organizing and operating part time and full time educational, occupational, and job placement programs; conducting followup, follow-through, and job adjustment activities; participating in curriculum revision; participating in efforts to involve the family in career education; monitoring and assessing professional activities; and communicating the results of these activities to other practitioners.

Barriers to Career Education of the Handicapped

Consideration must be given to some of the obstacles to career education that confront handicapped individuals. One obvious and pervasive problem is that of physical access to educational programs, training facilities, and employment areas.

Geography is an additional complication for some of the handicapped. In particular, the handicapped in rural areas frequently do not have opportunities for education, training, and/or employment. (This factor was noted in the Maryland study cited below.) One response to such a need is the development of residential services conjoint with day facilities (vocational schools, community colleges, etc.).

Another problem is that of insuring appropriate and adequate funding for programs of career education for the handicapped. In 1975 the Maryland Advisory Council on Vocational-Technical Education conducted a study directed at the unmet needs for vocational training in that state, and one of the significant populations identified as needing training was the handicapped.

Maryland's findings are also borne out nationally. Although the Vocational Education Act of 1968 stipulated that at least 10% of Part B funds (Basic State Grant Programs) be allocated for the development and implementation of vocational education programs for handicapped individuals in each state, the 1974 report by the US General Accounting Office (analyzing funds through 1973) found the actual overall range varied from 8% to 17% with an average of 11%. There were 14 states, in fact, that had not met the minimum compliance requirements of 10%. Other available data similarly indicate that, while more money has been appropriated for vocational programs for handicapped individuals, a significant number of handicapped individuals are not being served in vocational educational programs.

Development of Programs in Career Education

Despite the real and necessary participation of various societal elements in career education, the school is the most pervasive agency in shaping the future career directions for the handicapped individual. For too long the concept of most educational programs has been that the handicapped individual will fit and be fitted into jobs at the skilled and unskilled level; too few handicapped individuals have been assisted in their own choices or in their own efforts to pursue higher education and/or go into a broad range of career choices. Task analyses involved in assessing career roles at all levels and relating them to the interests and capabilities of handicapped individuals is a critical need.

Although most special education school programs have been vocationally oriented, much of the recent support and impetus for career training has come from the Rehabilitation Services Administration and state Division of Vocational Rehabilitation (DVR) resources. In many states, DVR personnel have been energetic and relatively successful in exploiting community resources for the career training of handicapped individuals.

The development of programs in career education for students in special education programs and for students who wish to work with handicapped individuals should be encouraged, even though these programs have increased in number within the past 5 years. In 1973 The Council for Exceptional Children conducted a conference concerned with career education and handicapped students. One of its strong directions was the movement away from labeling and categorization and toward the mainstream concept. The conviction was stressed that as long as the handicapped individual was stereotyped, labeled, segregated, and treated separately in school that the broader society would continue to treat him similarly in employment, in higher education opportunities, and in other considerations. Also emphasized was the team approach—the necessity of a variety of disciplines assisting the child and the teacher in developing realistic self concept and career related attitudes and skills. This should be a lifelong process which impacts on adults at all stages of development.

As Talagan (1973) commented, "The process of using the community must be a sequential one where teachers explore from kindergarten on up the possibilities of work contained in the community. We should no longer build curriculum in the ivory tower of the university. We should build curriculum in the community where we ask people in business what they want, where we ask employers what they want, and where we ask the children what they want." Add to this data the information fed back into the career education programs from the labor force students. Only in this manner can career education be held accountable to its own graduates.

Exploring All the Possibilities

In summary, career education's goal is to make work possible, meaningful, and satisfying for all individuals. To achieve this for handicapped persons society must respect their right to choose from the widest possible set of opportunities. Until the total array of work possibilities for a handicapped citizen has been explored and made functionally possible, society is less than fair to the person and less than just to itself.

Continuing Education

Continuing education is the process by which an individual may at any age level enter into a training program to further his or her vocational or avocational goals.

The Need

Rapidly changing social conditions require early and appropriate adaptations of behavior. These adaptations depend heavily on the acquisition of new knowledges and skills, many of which are not learned spontaneously by exceptional individuals. Consequently, a process of lifelong instruction is needed to equip postschool individuals in all age ranges and disability groups with the new responses that will determine a handicapped person's survival, let alone success, in our society. Currently, school programs for the exceptional generally terminate at age 21 or earlier despite the evident need for continuing education. In a few communities, nonschool agencies are making sporadic attempts to provide lifelong education services to persons with certain disabilities, but such programs reach only a small minority of handicapped adolescents and adults. In view of this situation, millions of exceptional individuals are unable to sustain themselves adequately in the community at even the adaptations levels that they reached during the school years. Continuing education should be considered as one area of the need for comprehensive services for the handicapped individual. Comprehensive services will include total programs in the services of health, education, and welfare.

The Barriers

Some of the central barriers to continuing education for handicapped individuals are that:

1. Mandatory education often extends only to age 21 at the maximum.
2. The adult special education tradition is not strong in the United States.
3. Special education has traditionally addressed itself to younger individuals.
4. The possible content and procedures for continuing education for the handicapped have not been explicitly described.
5. Suitable adult education service delivery systems have not yet been evolved for urban, suburban, and rural areas that overcome problems of transportation; limited physical, intellectual, emotional, and learning capacities; and stereotyped and irrelevant curricula.
6. Industry does not have adequate experience in modifying their training programs to accommodate handicapped individuals.

Types of Continuing Education

Differences among exceptional people create a need for a variety of adult education options, including:

1. Continuing career education and vocational training for employed persons who need to have their vocational skills upgraded to meet a changing labor market.

2. Leisure education to enable handicapped individuals to use their time constructively and pleasurably as the aging process modifies interests and capacities.
3. Health education to assist exceptional adolescents and adults to understand their changing disabilities more fully and to maximize their residual capacities through informed self care and efficient use of health resources.
4. Environmental awareness to enable the mentally retarded (as well as others) to better understand the changing demands of daily living and improved means of managing their lives as independently as possible within the context of social change.
5. Continuing educational experiences aimed at the identification and development of maximum potential.

Current Status of Programing

Rehabilitation agencies often provide continuing education targeted toward improved functioning levels. However, almost all of these programs (for example, in the areas of daily living, remedial education, and vocational training) are of relatively short duration and terminate either when the stipulated goals have been attained or the disabled individual has benefited to the fullest degree possible from the program. Other than a small number of continuing education programs for the handicapped offered by local disability organizations, continuing education for the exceptional has been carried out in the framework of the local adult education mainstream, which has generally operated on a small scale. Some of the most effecitve programs have emerged in day centers for the retarded and other disability groups. These range widely in goals and quality, and efforts need to be made to enlarge the scope, programing, and comprehensiveness of these programs.

Restructuring Continuing Education for the Exceptional

Rusalem (1972) has suggested that a new conceptual context is needed for continuing education. The overreaching concern should be a view of the exceptional individual as a developing person throughout a life span with almost limitless growth possibilities, which could be realized within the confines of an effective continuing education program. From this perspective, the needs are to:

1. Ascertain developmental potentials and goals for each handicapped adolescent and adult.
2. Maintain an exceptionally rich and resourceful continuing education program from which individualized program choices may be made.
3. Deliver long range counseling to the exceptional person to help him or her make the best use of these expanded resources.

Continuing Education Procedures

A variety of continuing education arrangements should be tried to ascertain the conditions under which each is suitable for various disability groups and individuals in those groups. Among the promising arrangements are (a) adult "colleges," (b) life span education and rehabilitation centers, (c) extension of existing special education programs to the postschool group, (d) adult home study and home instruction programs, (e) expansion of use of telecommunications in adult education, and (f) the development of educational self help groups in which handicapped persons instruct other handicapped persons.

The Learning Dimension

Rusalem and Rusalem (1975) discovered in their Learning Capacities Research Project that a large majority of severely disabled adults have serious learning problems. Some of these problems are recognized in the school years, but despite all instructional efforts, they persist and often become exacerbated. Others were not fully recognized in the school years but now constitute important barriers to the intellectual and social growth of the disabled individual. A corps of specialists in adult and adolescent learning problems is needed to implement the techniques evolved by the Learning Capacities Research Project so that the instruction offered in continuing education for the exceptional can be keyed to the learning attributes of those served. Indeed, the limitations that many handicapped persons have in acquiring new skills and knowledges from the natural environment not only lead to impoverished lives but also to extreme dependence and institutionalization.

Potential Solutions

To avoid unnecessary dependence and institutionalization of the handicapped, action must be taken by those responsible for their education. Following are some steps which should be considered:

1. An adult and continuing education section could be developed in the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped with earmarked funds to support programs in this area.
2. A national continuing education center for the handicapped could be developed to assume leadership in creating and demonstrating innovative programs.
3. Local special education programs could be mandated to offer lifelong services.
4. Self help educational programs could be organized and funded.
5. Learning capacities approaches could be incorporated into all educational activities for handicapped adolescents and adults.
6. Short term workshops or institutes could instill specialized skills in handicapped individuals.

Personnel Requirements for Education of Handicapped Individuals

Supply and Demand

About 130,000 special teachers of the handicapped are employed in the United States mostly in service to children in the school age range (5 to 17 years old). It has been estimated (Balow, 1973) that about 240,000 more such teachers would be required just to serve all handicapped students of school age, thus giving a total needed figure of about 370,000. Many more would be required to provide full services to all children and youth. For example, an estimated 60,000 additional teachers would be required to serve the estimated 1 million preschool age handicapped children, and great but unmeasured needs exist to prepare teachers for secondary and postsecondary schools, particularly for vocational programs.

Preparation Centers

The role of colleges and universities as the only agencies authorized to offer credit for professional study is changing. In some places local school systems may assume the role of inservice trainers. Coordination must take place between higher education training institutions and local school systems for implementing the variety of training programs needed to supply personnel to train handicapped students.

The present state of employment and the preservice preparation of teachers of the handicapped represent a vast change in the past three decades. For example, in 1948 only 77 colleges were known to be providing a training sequence in even one category of special education; by 1954, the number was 122 (Mackie & Dunn, 1954); and now it is well over 400. Many of the colleges now involved in special teacher preparation offer a variety of sequences, and thus there has been a large increase in training capacity. Much of the recent growth in preparation programs reflects the burgeoning federal participation in the funding of programs through the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped.

Categories for Certification, Training, and Employment

Most states now offer certification to teachers (including speech clinicians) in about seven or eight different categories of special education (see Abeson & Fluery, 1972). College training programs and employment opportunities have tended to follow the same categories. Those most frequent are as follows: educable mentally retarded, speech correction (therapy, clinicians, etc.), learning disabilities, emotionally disturbed, hearing impaired, visually impaired, orthopedically (and other health) impaired, and trainable mentally retarded.

There is some indication that the number of different kinds of certificates may be tending to diminish. The DELPHI survey conducted as part of The Professional Standards and Guidelines Project of The Council for Exceptional Children (Reynolds, 1973) showed that special education "leaders" expected the special education certification categories to come down from seven or eight to about four. That view was shared by state directors of special education and college faculty members. The survey was interpreted as showing "strong expressions for reducing the number of different kinds of state certification."

Other parts of the survey showed that the most likely emerging pattern would be to hold firmly to special certification in three areas—speech correction, hearing impairments, and visual impairments—while collapsing across some of the other categories. This trend, if it crystallizes as anticipated, would not necessarily show lesser concern for specialized roles and specificity of competencies. Rather, it might show only that the degree of specificity in negotiations for certification between individuals and state departments of education would be reduced while negotiations with training centers and employers become all the more specific. Perhaps, however, such negotiations would be based more on "competencies" than on traditional categories.

Additionally, many other studies are tending to show a positive trend toward the development of more generic degrees in special education such as the combination of competencies in learning and emotional disabilities and mental retardation. Collapsing of these specialties makes it possible for graduates to function adequately in a broader range of settings. The movement away from particular course offerings to an emphasis on competencies is also reflected in places where standards for certification and accreditation are being formulated and refined (Reynolds, 1973). As more states adopt "right to education" statutes, the base of experience and approaches should provide a clearer picture of the most efficacious certification techniques.

The Distribution Problem and Potential Solutions

Special education services have always been maldistributed, but never so obviously as now when courts have directed that all children be served. One key facet of the distribution problem is that specialists tend not to go to certain high need areas for employment. For example, it is difficult to place highly trained teachers of braille and of mobility in rural areas where they would serve a small number of widely scattered visually handicapped children and where a major portion of their time would be spent in traveling. Somehow, better methods of recruitment, placement, and utilization of specialized personnel must be found so that the obligation to serve children in normal environments can be realized, even for those in remote and rural areas.

One possible solution may be for federal and state officials to organize a hierarchical system in which personnel needs are specified for whole states or broad regions; then the corresponding training functions could be allocated to institutions of higher education. Recruitment, training, and placement of trainees would be monitored and evaluated according to distribution needs, including the needs of rural areas. There are some signs of movement in that direction; programs of voluntary coordination by colleges and state departments of education are encouraged and are reviewed by federal officers before training grants are awarded.

More funds need to be made available to local schools and agencies, thus permitting them to purchase training. It might be assumed that they would recruit, select, and provide support for training indigenous teacher candidates, those who are firmly committed to return with their specialized skills to the communities sponsoring them. Another probable effect would be to draw training resources of the colleges out to communities where they are needed for on the job training. This would force college departments of special education to package their programs and make them more "exportable."

Role Changes

Current forces and trends appear to be fostering some predictable role changes for special education personnel. Listed below are some tentative observations and predictions about these role changes.

Special education as a support system. It appears to be the case now as well as a persisting trend that more special education teachers may go into what might be called support roles, that is, teaming up with regular teachers rather than operating largely in separate classes, schools, and centers. Some of the implications of this change are that:

1. Special education personnel may be less identified with categories of exceptionality when working in support roles. However, support teachers are not a substitute for the highly trained and specialized teacher who must work with a homogeneous group of students, and these specialized classes will remain as part of the educational system.
2. Regular teachers will, both through formal training and work experience with special educators, become more knowledgeable and resourceful in dealing with exceptional pupils. This will require extraordinary investments of time and resources.

3. Special education personnel will be selected and prepared for more indirect influences in the schools, as in consultation and change agent roles.
4. Major restructuring will occur in the college training programs for special education personnel, becoming less categorized and more integral with general teacher preparation.

More child study in schools. It may be predicted that traditional methods of referring children to specialists for diagnosis will decline in practice, and instead, a diagnostic capacity will be built within individual school buildings. Some of the implications of such a change, with special reference to personnel roles, are that:

1. More dependence will be placed on diagnosis by teams of regular school personnel, including school principals, special and regular teachers, and others who also carry responsibility for follow-through instruction—all of this in cooperation with parents.
2. More training will be provided for parents so that they can participate effectively in decision making and monitoring concerning the education of their children.
3. The "waiting time" for child study in special centers will hopefully disappear or be reduced.
4. More study of the child's school and total life situation as an adjunct to direct assessment of the child will occur.
5. Parents will be more involved in studying children and in making programmatic decisions.
6. Diagnostic functions will be more broadly integrated within the school into learning centers, which may also include instructional materials and the library.
7. Specialists such as psychologists will be used more in indirect roles as trainers and consultants to individual school based personnel.
8. Much less simple categorization of and prediction for children and more explicit orientation to the planning and evaluation of instruction will be encouraged.
9. More effects on total school atmosphere will be seen as programs for exceptional children are integrated.

More local educational services for the severely and profoundly handicapped. It is already the case that many severely handicapped children are being returned from institutions and hospitals to the community for education. The implications of this action are:

1. A rising demand for teachers prepared to deal with severely and profoundly handicapped students.
2. New demands for paraprofessionals who can serve in supportive roles in service to the severely handicapped.
3. Increasing attention to complex problems of diagnosis, as in distinguishing problems of autism, retardation, and deafness.
4. More use of nontraditional personnel (such as psychologists) in instructional roles.
5. Closer coordination of school and home programs through parental consultation.

Research and Education

This section of the chapter attempts to review, briefly, the current status of support, dissemination, and implementation of research on the education of the handicapped and then to identify both areas of research needs as well as problem areas related to conducting research on the education of the handicapped.

Before discussing the current status of research and research needs, a few comments regarding the manner in which the term "research" is used here are relevant. Research is the process of asking questions and the seeking of answers to those questions in an objective, controlled, and repeatable manner. The objective of research is to allow the researcher to identify unequivocal relationships between manipulated variables and a performance measure of interest. Research is, by its nature, an intellectual enterprise. The development of useful products based on the outcomes of research should not be construed as research. Development uses facts established through research as a basis for manufacturing usable products. This distinction is made because of the increasing tendency to regard development as research rather than as a by-product of research based knowledge.

Current Status

Research activity on the education of the handicapped has been vigorous for less than a decade. This is true in spite of the fact that public programs for the handicapped have existed since the turn of the century and have been prevalent since the middle of the century. While we have learned many things about teaching the handicapped during the past 10 years, we have also learned how little we actually know. Because research on the handicapped is in its infancy, there is no area that does not need more research.

In spite of the need for research in all areas of the handicapped person's development, not all areas receive the appropriate level of attention. Research needs and priorities vary from year to year more on the basis of complex sociopolitical factors than on any knowledge base. This fact leads to a focus on politically relevant rather than scientifically relevant topics for study.

A recent study (Kakalik, Brewer, Dougharty, Fleischauer, & Genensky, 1973) estimated that state and federal governments spend $4.73 billion annually for services to the handicapped. Of this sum only $120 million is spent on research. This means that only 2% of the annual expenditures on behalf of handicapped persons is spent to obtain knowledge on the provision of the services purchased. The majority of funds spent on research related to the handicapped are those from the National Institutes of Health. Research on the education of the handicapped is estimated at $10.79 million annually (Glickman, 1975), which is less than 9% of all the research funds expended on the handicapped.

The Bureau of Education for the Handicapped supports almost all educational research on the handicapped. During the 1975 fiscal year that support was divided as follows: approximately 47% was directed to noncategorical research, 25% was spent in the area of mental retardation, 8% each was used for the visually and hearing handicapped, with the remaining 12% spread across the crippled and health impaired, emotionally disturbed, and speech handicapped. The Bureau's priority areas for the distribution of funds were as follows: full school services (48%); child advocacy, career education, and personnel development (13% each); severely handicapped (7%); early childhood education (5%); and combined objectives (1%). While it is difficult to determine precisely, many of these research funds were supporting development rather than research activities.

An additional characteristic of the current status of research on the education of handicapped individuals deserves mention. No *detailed* explication of the research needs in the area of the handicapped person is currently available. There are also no coordinated research plans designed to meet the educational needs of handicapped persons. The closest approximation of a statement of research needs is provided by a recent publication by Gallagher (1975).

Research Needs

Interdisciplinary research results. A major need is the interpretation and dissemnination of the research results from the disciplines of medicine, biology, and genetics. There have been marked advances in the identification of cause of handicapping conditions. This data must be made accessible to teachers, community agencies, and the public at large.

Systems for evaluation. The process of evaluating the cognitive, motor, self help, and personal and social skills of handicapped individuals has two objectives: classification and program development. A wide range of tools has been developed for classification. Unfortunately, many of these tools do not lend themselves to educational programing. Furthermore, as noted by Hobbs (1975), these tools do not result in cross categorical systems for classifying handicapped individuals. Hobbs pointed to the critical need for the development of a comprehensive, cross categorical system for diagnosing and classifying. The intent of the system would be to provide program planners with educationally relevant information about each student. Given this intent, it should be possible to develop a system that would be useful for classification purposes and that would also provide precise educational plans for each handicapped person classified.

Learning characteristics and strategies. Educational programs for handicapped children, youth, and adults assume that the instructor has a general understanding of the learning processes of the persons with whom he or she is working. Practitioners, however, frequently express dissatisfaction with their level of understanding regarding their students' learning skills. This fact is not surprising given the lack of empirically based descriptions of the learning performances. In Gallagher's (1975) recent review of child development research and exceptional children, research needs within each category of exceptionality were identified. The most frequently identified research need was to identify and understand the basic learning processes and strategies by which the handicapped process information.

Longitudinal research. The Gallagher review identified longitudinal research as an important need. Such research should focus on:

1. The cognitive, personal, and social development of handicapped persons, particularly as this influences the development of competence.
2. The relationship between family variables and the personal and social adjustment of the handicapped.
3. The relationship between developmental characteristics, habilitation programs, and the adult status of handicapped individuals. A desperate need for information regarding the long term nature and quality of life of adult handicapped persons exists.

In addition to these general topical areas of research need, there are research problems in need of solution. First, there needs to be a better balance in resource distribution. The imbalance between biomedical and educational research funding should be corrected. Support for basic and applied research should be equalized, and there should be a better balance of support between categories of handicap and priority areas.

A second need is for better research dissemination. The only comprehensive system for disseminating the results of research and development efforts is the ERIC Document Reproduction Service. Additional mechanisms other than journal publications are needed for the rapid and widespread distribution of the results of significant research.

Finally, there is a need for better research training for both practioners and researchers. Practitioners need to be trained in how to interpret the results of research, apply the results of research to their program, and use research techniques to make data based decisions regarding their day to day activities. Researchers need to be better trained in identifying researchable questions, designing experimentally valid research, and presenting the results of their research in understandable language and usable formats. Practitioners can also be trained to work with researchers in identifying research questions of a programmatic nature and implementing projects that could have impact on practice. Funding sources also need to be able to make commitments to diverse types of research programs.

Public Information and Education

The Growth of Public Awareness

As the records from our early beginnings show, educational programs for the handicapped prior to 1900 were conducted in residential settings. The new century brought public awareness in general and parent pressures specifically. By the 1920's, two-thirds of the large cities had special classes.

While communities continued to establish programs, the real growth of special education came at the close of World War II. A number of young men who had left home physically fit and respected in their home communities returned as blind and physically handicapped veterans. Having established a place in society prior to the onset of their handicap, they were able to reestablish themselves in the community and aid in bringing about a change in attitude regarding handicapped persons. In addition to wounded veterans, the increasing public awareness of the results of automobile and home accidents created a sensitivity to the special needs of persons disabled later in life.

This new awareness created a moral responsibility for providing opportunities for handicapped children to receive a public school education. As more classes for the blind, deaf, and physically handicapped were established, parents of retarded children joined to form a parents' lobby to provide greater availability of educational programs for the mentally retarded. Although a number of states have now mandated special education classes for all handicapped children, and although Public Law 94-142 mandates educational awareness campaigns in each state, much yet remains to be done.

Early intervention and the current

emphases on placement of handicapped students in the least restrictive environment and on family involvement in the educational process make awareness and information about successful programing imperative. The process of identifying and enrolling handicapped children in special education programs is contingent on the awareness and attitudes of parents of these handicapped children. Also, potential employers need to be educated about how handicapped people can be placed into meaningful employment circumstances, given selective job placement strategies. Handicapped people have repeatedly reported that the disability itself does not create as much of a handicap as do the negative attitudes other people have toward it. Usually the attitudes can be traced to lack of information, misunderstanding, or apprehension concerning how to deal with handicapped people.

Education for Prevention

Continued efforts need to be made to inform the public at large that many handicapping conditions occur before birth and can be prevented. Also, not all handicapped persons are born handicapped but many become so as a result of accidents, toxic substances, and diseases. Many of these conditions can be avoided through inoculations and simple safety precautions. Constant attention must be paid by industry to the development of safe products and safe working conditions for all humans. The efforts of the National Safety Council should be made readily available.

Present Media Efforts

Local radio and television stations and newspapers provide an excellent opportunity to tell the special education story. One notes the continual growth of the media's attention to handicapped children and adults. In the past, handicapped children have not often been pictured in books or seen on television. Recently, however, *Sesame Street*, *Misterogers Neighborhood*, and *Captain Kangaroo* have included children with handicaps.

Although the media appears most receptive to its role in public information and education, those concerned with the education story must recognize some present limitations and take measures to overcome them. Daily papers are primarily interested in news. If the news can report a unique new program, a funding source, a new screening device, or items with budgetary implications, they may be included. The Sunday feature may occasionally be devoted to information about the handicapped, but such features often will present a human interest story with rosy overtones and happy endings.

Weekly papers will use items eventually if copy is provided. Most newspapers do not have sufficient staff to generate this kind of copy. At the present time it has been found that small newspaper chains are frequently educationally oriented and that local weekly papers are good information disseminators. It would appear that the most successful programs for awareness and understanding of educational programs are those being conducted on the local level but unfortunately in a fragmented way.

Increasing the Efforts

Successful educational programing for the handicapped can no longer be perceived as a self contained class established to provide for those children who have been unable to cope in regular classes and who will remain dependent after they have finished school. Availability of early identification, diagnosis, specialized programing and services, career awareness, and postsecondary training are all equally important components. Parents need to recognize problems and know where to seek help. Service agencies, both public and private, must be aware of each other's existence and know how to coordinate services. The medical profession must be aware of and understand the philosophy of special education programing, as must regular classroom teachers and school administrators, who will be involved in placing the handicapped in integrated environments. The general tax paying public must know about differential costs for educating handicapped persons, and the necessity to support programs of specialized education. They must realize that such costs are investments—human investments that profit society.

It has been suggested that generally the use of media has been more concerned with publicity than public relations. One brief radio or television spot fails to tell the total message. Educating the media must become a responsibility of educators, handicapped persons, and parents alike. The National Advertising Council has supported the President's physical fitness program and health related programs in a comprehensive, organized way, which tends to make an impact. If useful information and a basic understanding about the handicapped are to be presented in a sequential, meaningful fashion to appropriate audiences, such information must be generated and disseminated in a systematic way.

Summary

Although the democratic premise that *education is the right of all children* exists, throughout the history of American education handicapped individuals have faced a policy of exclusion rather than inclusion. It is estimated that in the United States there are 7 million (plus 1 million preschool age) handicapped children, who because of their handicaps require special education programs. Only about 40% are receiving the kind of educational program necessary to achieve their maximum capacity.

This chapter addressed the topic areas of (a) legal right to education, (b) finance, (c) delivery systems, (d) early childhood education, (e) problems of the severely handicapped, (f) career education, (g) continuing education, (h) personnel requirements, (i) research, and (j) public information and education. Throughout the chapter the involvement of parents and family was discussed. The potential impact of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, Public Law 94-142, was also noted in the various topic areas. Clearly, the implementation of the right to education mandate, and the monitoring of the actions of the schools, are primary issues before the consumer and professional communities. Key concepts discussed in the chapter include the following:

1. Vigorous and imaginative actions of consumers and professionals have been the force behind the now *legally* established right that handicapped school age children have the same rights as nonhandicapped students to a free, public, and equal educational opportunity. Implementation and monitoring of the schools require the cooperation of parents, advocacy groups, and professionals.
2. At a time when education budgets are being reduced or contained, the public needs to understand the costs related to a total "inclusion" program of handicapped persons in education. Understanding must, in turn, breed support.
3. A delivery system is the programmatic way of providing an educational program. "Mainstreaming" is the current approach but would be more meaningful if defined in the terms of the "least restrictive environment." Such a delivery system focuses on a full continuum range of placement, heavily involves parents in decision making, and requires an array of ancillary services.
4. A recent national movement in the education of the handicapped is early childhood education. The importance of early education is stressed. Early stimulation of children and special programs reduce the number of children who will need intensive or long term help and will enable many who before were in special class placements to enroll and function satisfactorily in the regular school classroom. Family participation is essential, but a range of supporting and respite services is also needed. Presently only 25% of the preschool handicapped are receiving the appropriate, specialized services they need.
5. The management of severely handicapped persons has just recently become an educational rather than a custodial concern. Public Law 94-142 provides the opportunity for the country's severely handicapped to achieve full realization of their right to an education—a right traditionally denied rather than granted. Essential elements to a total program include: starting intervention at birth; intensively involving various disciplines, in addition to the teacher, in the classroom program; planning if necessary for lifelong attention; establishing programs to train educators for new, needed skills; and providing support and training to parents from the moment the severely handicapped child is identified. An underlying factor is the necessity for a basic change in community attitudes—to reverse old attitudes and to open the community to handicapped persons.
6. Career education must span the entire life cycle since "career" and "education" span

preschool through retirement. The current predictions of unemployment, underemployment, poverty level employment, total dependence, and institutionalization for handicapped persons leaving the school systems are more than a concern, and they may serve as a real indictment to education and society unless aborted. Handicapped individuals should be able to make decisions on their own career choice and education. Agencies other than education, such as those of business, labor, and the community, need to make their contributions to a total career program for the handicapped.

7. A new conceptual context is needed in the continuing education for the handicapped—a context that will replace the current orientation of recreation, busywork, and health with a focus on the individual as a developing person throughout the life span. Handicapped persons must be viewed as having almost limitless growth possibilities which could be realized within an effective continuing education program. Delivery systems have not yet been created that overcome problems of transportation and limited physical, intellectual, emotional, and learning capacities. A variety of continuing education arrangements, such as adult "colleges," life span education centers, and adult home instruction programs, should be tried.
8. The need for adequate numbers of trained personnel continues. Special education services have always been maldistributed, but now with the court mandate to serve all children the situation becomes more critical. Solutions may be in the mapping of broad geographical regions and allocating corresponding training functions to certain higher institutions of education and/or shifting some college training funds to local schools and agencies, permitting them to purchase training. The latter assumes that they would recruit and train personnel who would be firmly committed to return with their skills to the sponsoring communities.
9. It is possible to identify an almost limitless number of research needs in the area of the education of the handicapped. Research related to (a) better evaluation/classification systems, (b) understanding the learning strategies of the handicapped, and (c) long term, longitudinal studies were identified as three significant areas of research need. Three logistic support related problems were also identified and discussed: better balance in resource distribution, better research dissemination, and better research training for both pracitioners and researchers.
10. New programs in early intervention, placement of handicapped students in the least restrictive environment, programs for the severely and profoundly handicapped, and family involvement in the educational process make awareness and information about successful programing imperative.

A total partnership of federal, state, and local education agencies, along with the consumer and professional community, can reverse the inadequacies of the past and make the goal of education for all a reality.

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As Members of CEC,
We Believe:

That all children have rights which shall not
be abrogated, and that the rights of equal opportunity
and equal protection under the law are fundamental.

That each child has the right
to an education that provides
appropriate opportunities for growth.

That the unique abilities and
creative talents of gifted children
should be recognized and nurtured.

That service to exceptional children is the bond
that holds us together as a professional organization,
and that we should capitalize on
significant historical experience,
but not permit it to inhibit our quest for
improvements in methods, techniques,
and delivery systems.

Adopted by the CEC Board of Governors, April 6, 1976